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## THE ROUND TABLE.

NEW YORK, SATURDAY, SEPTEMBER 19, 1868.

### THE SUPREME COURT AND THE LEGAL-TENDER ACT.

IT has been stated several times of late that the Supreme Court of the United States would, at its next regular term, render a decision adverse to the constitutionality of the act of Congress known as the Legal-tender Act. We do not know upon what grounds the statement has been made; whether it is a mere inference, based upon the expressed opinions of the majority of the court, or whether such a decision has been actually determined upon, but its announcement postponed for prudential reasons. It is not our intention here to argue for or against the constitutionality of the act in question. The whole subject was ably and thoroughly handled before the Court of Appeals of this State in the case of *Metro-politan Bank vs. Van Dyck*, which is reported in Vol. XXVII. of the *New York Reports*. A majority of the court sustained the power of Congress to pass such a law, and in the opinions of Judges Davies, Balcom, Wright, and Emott will be found the reasons why such a result was arrived at. On the other side, the able opinion of Judge Denio, dissenting, probably contains all the arguments that can be urged against the power. It would be utterly impossible for us to throw any further light upon the subject. The decision of our court has been very generally accepted as the proper exposition of the law, and under that decision the business community have been acting ever since it was rendered, in 1863.

But while the question itself is not for us an open one, we may, with great propriety, call public attention to the probable effect of a decision by the Supreme Court of the United States reversing the ruling of our Court of Appeals, in the hope that prudent men will take the matter into consideration, and so shape and govern their affairs as to prevent, or at least mitigate, the evils which may be naturally expected to flow therefrom. The currency of the country now consists of three hundred million dollars in national bank notes, and a somewhat larger amount of legal tenders. The bank notes, although not themselves legal tenders, are supposed to be convertible into them on demand. Now, if the power of Congress to make paper money a legal tender be denied by the court of last resort, it follows, as a matter of course, that every man to whom money is owing may refuse to take in payment thereof either bank-notes or greenbacks, and may demand and recover the full amount of his debt in lawful money—that is, in gold coin. The mere statement is sufficient to startle every debtor in the country, and yet it is but a simple statement of the inevitable result of such a decision.

The equity, justice, and morality of the legal tender act were attacked when it went into operation, because its effect was to allow creditors to pay in paper, depreciated to a small extent, debts contracted to be paid in coin; but what can be said of the equity, justice, and morality of forcing creditors to pay in coin, appreciated fifty per cent., debts contracted to be paid in paper? It is very clear that of the two wrongs, if wrongs they be, the latter is by far the more oppressive. Indeed, it is a consequence of so serious a nature that we marvel at the apathy of the public in view of its possibility. Its effect would be disastrous. The banks cannot pay their notes in specie; the government cannot pay its notes in specie; and yet private debtors would be required to do so. To say that a panic would be precipitated is to describe the certain result in very faint terms. The terrible catalogue of ruined fortunes which would follow needs no descriptive power to render it appalling.

It is possible that some of the worst features of the case may be obviated by the pressure of necessity. We have heretofore passed through periods of illegal

suspension when misfortune was so universal that mutual forbearance was exercised, and the pressure of public opinion was such that courts and people were restrained from the rigid enforcement of the strict letter of the law. It may be, and it probably will be, that the crisis will be so severe that debtors will be afraid to push their creditors to extremes, and will be willing to take paper because they fear they cannot get gold. It may well be, also, that the courts will be astute enough to find a loop-hole out of which the creditor class may creep, and will hold that contracts made while the legal-tender act was considered to be law were made with the implied understanding in the minds of both parties that they were to be discharged with paper money. Such a decision would appeal to the public sense of equity very strongly, and before it could be reversed the crisis would be over. But if the Supreme Court decides as it is alleged it will, the pleasing delusion that we shall get back to specie payments without a financial panic will be dispelled. The thing will be simply impossible. It will only remain for the people to put themselves in such a position as will enable them to weather the storm with as little damage as possible.

The storm over, however, and the effect will be most happy. Of all the plans for the resumption of specie payments the plan of the Supreme Court will be at once the most thorough, the most effectual, and the most lasting. Some diseases are of such a nature that all remedies are useless except actual cautery, and, while many may think that the remedy in such cases is worse than the disease, yet after the remedy has been applied and the pain from it is over, and they find the disease eradicated, they will think differently. So inveterate are the prejudices and so stolid is the ignorance of the mass of our people on the subject of finance that we have despaired of ever reaching a safe haven by ordinary means. While we shall deplore the suffering which such an event will cause, and now earnestly warn the mercantile classes to prepare for the coming tempest, we do not think that the expected decision, if it comes, is to be deplored. It will do in a moment what years of legislative tinkering with the finances have failed, and must continue to fail, to do. It will restore the business of the country to a sound specie basis; it will dispel the mists of speculation; drive to honest, productive callings hosts of persons who now live on the fluctuations of the markets; drive down to their natural level the prices of the necessities of life; restore to something like their proper relations capital and labor; dispose for ever of the doctrines of semi-repudiation; and force Congress to pass proper funding laws. The attainment of these results will be worth the spasm which will be the immediate result of the anticipated decision.

### "A YANKEE" ON THE COMING BATTLE.

AMERICANS who happened to be in England during the late civil war had frequent opportunities to see how delicate and critical was the state of English public opinion respecting the rights of our quarrel, and how many were the occasions when even a feather's weight would have turned the scale and decided the mother country upon forcible interference. Without speculating on the ultimate consequences of such a step, we shall all readily agree that its immediate effect would have been disastrous to the Union; and that, so far as clear and dispassionate exposition of the Northern side of the argument may have led to a suspension of British action through the counteraction of inimical influences, the national gratitude is due to those who afforded it. Among the efforts to this end there were none, perhaps, more persistent, able, and effective than those of the American correspondent of *The London Spectator*, who wrote over the signature of "A Yankee." Distinguished for temperateness of expression, usually for great accuracy of information, and for a certain hardihood that frequently led him to cross blades with his principals of *The Spectator* themselves, this writer had the faculty, rare among his countrymen, of writing English in a manner to satisfy the English themselves; a circumstance that had much more to do than might generally be supposed with the success of "A Yankee's" letters among the educated classes in the community to which they were addressed.

In truth, they served as antidotes to many poisons whose threatened effect was that of increasing the chances of the permanent disruption of these states; and, on the authority of one who can bear personal testimony to their efficacy in English society, the writer of those letters deserves the thanks and gratitude of every man in this country who cares for the Union, and rejoices in the failure of attempts to destroy it.

The value, then, of this writer's patriotism has been put to the test as well as its sincerity, and it is rational to believe that the Union for which he has labored so strenuously in the past is no less an object of his solicitude in the future. When, therefore, he is found (see *The Spectator*, Aug. 29) explicitly declaring against the election of General Grant, repeating the statement of a former letter that "General Grant . . . will not be elected unless political changes which I do not now look for take place before next November," when he is found not only foreshadowing the election of Mr. Seymour, but advancing elaborate and thoughtful arguments in support of the propriety of such an election, we are bound not only to attach a weight to his opinions due to their enunciation of abilities and antecedents, but also to believe that other honest and patriotic Republicans will be moved by similar considerations to abandon the Radical standard and to vote for the Democratic candidate. Agreeing with ourselves that Mr. Seymour was not the most available candidate, "A Yankee" yet thinks and says that the Radical policy has been "such that now Mr. Seymour will receive the votes of tens of thousands to whom his attitude during the war . . . was in the highest degree offensive." And that now "the Democratic party, which at the close of the war was to all intents and purposes dead and ready to decompose into its individual atoms, is alive again, and is looked to by a large proportion of those who supported, and of those who fought that war, as the only political power to be relied upon for the preservation of constitutional government, our only bulwark against the rule of an unchecked, irresponsible majority of the whole people, consolidated for all practical political purposes into one undivided Democratic republic." Finally, after a dispassionate recital of the unconstitutional measures whereby the Radical leaders have forced the Republican party into a false and untenable position, "A Yankee" sums up as follows:

"What, then, is the issue between the two parties which is to be decided at the next general election? Simply this: The Republican party, as represented by the men who now control it, claims that while all state rights, including that of regulating the suffrage, must be preserved inviolate in those states the majority of whose people did not take part in the rebellion, in the others the control of suffrage and citizenship may and should be assumed by Congress, and that these states should be 'reconstructed' for the purpose of giving the suffrage to negroes. In other words, that where negro suffrage is a matter of tremendous moment, it may be imposed upon the people by force, but that in another part of the country, where the question of negro suffrage is of no practical consequence, it should be left to the people, who have already decided against it—even Kansas, bleeding Kansas, having refused the negro the suffrage, and Ohio, radical Ohio, having denied political rights to all persons having even 'a visible admixture of negro blood.' This position, which the Democrats deny, is distinctly taken in the second article of the Republican platform. The Republicans also rest upon the position that 'the negro must be a chattel or a citizen.' This the Democrats also deny; and point to the negro in the North, where, for half a century, he has been neither chattel nor citizen, and where yet all his personal rights are as secure as those of any white man, and he is as comfortable as any man in his condition of life, and generally somewhat happier than a white man of similar position. Upon these issues the Republicans would surely be defeated, and by the votes of men who fought and labored for the Union from the beginning to the end of the war with all their hearts and all their strength, were it not for the well-deserved popularity of their candidate, whom they took a large proportion of them very reluctantly—solely on account of that popularity. That they will save themselves by this move is far from being certain, or even tolerably well assured. Should the Republicans succeed, it will be because of their candidate, and in spite of their platform. Should the Democrats return to power, it will be because of their platform, and in spite of their candidate."

We regard this significant and able letter as a proof, among others that are rapidly thickening around us, of the failure of the leading idea of the Radical campaign, which is to persuade the people that they are to vote for in this election what they fought for in the war; and that to vote the Democratic ticket is to vote against what the war was fought for and decided. The war was fought for Union and, incidentally, not primarily, for Emancipation; it was not fought for Universal Negro-Suffrage. The Presidential election has no bearing whatever on Union and Emancipation, which issues are for ever settled; but it has a distinct and potential bearing upon this issue of Suffrage—not to determine whether Negro Suffrage be right or wrong, but whether it is to be constitutionally regulated by State, or unconstitutionally regulated by Nation-



al, authority. The most ardent supporters of Union and abolition may, and, as "A Yankee" predicts, undoubtedly will, vote for the former of these alternatives. Indeed, if by Union is implied the preservation of the Constitution, an inversion of the Radical idea legitimately follows, and the main object of the war is voted for in voting the Democratic ticket. Fortunately for the republic the Constitution, outside of which the late Mr. Stevens boldly professed himself to be working, has outlived him. It is at least capable of resuscitation. It may yet outlive all his coadjutors. And, despite the two majorities just rolled up by "A Yankee's" adverse congeners we do not yet believe that the whole people will forget that in the coming great battle is involved the issue of constitutional life or death.

#### WOMAN'S EDUCATION.

EVERYWHERE an amount of discussion and of practical effort is being devoted to the improvement of women's education that has already produced results which would bewilder our great-grandmothers, and seem not unlikely to insure our granddaughters, possibly our daughters, equal advantages to those their brothers will enjoy. To begin abroad, we find, in places where revolutionary reforms of this sort could scarcely be looked for, very noticeable manifestations of the disposition to aid women to higher education, and, what is better, of women's readiness to avail themselves of it. This year, for instance, despite great opposition, there has been thrown open to the women of Paris that famous seat of learning, the Sorbonne, founded by Robert de Sorbonne in the twelfth century for poor students. Some three hundred ladies attend the lectures, including many of high social position, two nieces of the Empress being among the number; while the course of instruction provides not only for the completion of girls' education, but for fitting young women to become governesses, many already engaged in this calling taking advantage of the opportunity. In England and Scotland there have been quite as encouraging manifestations. At London the effort shows to most advantage in the Queen's College, chartered in 1853, "for the general education of ladies, and for granting certificates of knowledge." Its patrons are Queen Victoria and the Princess of Wales. Some of the highest ecclesiastical dignitaries and most eminent of English scholars are among its visitors, officers, and lecturers; it is well provided with scholarships, with facilities for teaching music, and modern languages in particular, and with tributary or co-operating institutions, in some of which the instruction of governesses is especially provided for. Lectures have proved particularly successful throughout the island. During last spring, for example, Prof. C. H. Pearson, the historian, who spent the summer in this country, delivered a course of lectures on early English history, before more than 180 ladies, at Liverpool, and at Manchester, where there is a limitation as to age, before 100. At Leeds, Bradford, and Sheffield, at about the same time, Mr. J. W. Hales instructed 250 ladies in early English literature, and 250 attended Prof. Masson's literature class in Edinburgh,—the papers prepared by these ladies being described as very creditable performances. So at Glasgow, also last spring, provision was made for classes of ladies in Glasgow University, Prof. Nichol having had one in English literature, while Dr. Young, the professor of natural history, had an attendance on his course in geology which averaged more than 50, so that the professors were convinced of the expediency of the arrangement, and it will be made permanent. That the same plan would succeed here is shown to our own satisfaction by the incident we noted last winter,—that a gentleman who was invited to lecture on Greek literature before a class of ladies in St. Louis—the St. Louis schools providing the same course in classics, etc., for girls that they do for boys—at the first of his twelve lectures "found a class of 32 ladies, of ages varying from sixteen to sixty, each provided with a note-book and pencil, and a copy of Homer;" and the interest, we have since learned, so increased as the lectures went on that this winter there is likely to be a similar course, we believe in Anglo-Saxon.

Circumstances like these are, it is true, only indica-

tions. But they are indications of a tendency before which we may hope soon to see swept away the last vestiges of the feebly surviving follies of the old finishing-school. As we are going now, it will not be long before girls will have to surrender the cherished delusion that they are "accomplished" by reason of their ability to make bad noises on the piano, to imitate ugly things in worsted, and to dance, while they have got from superficial school-books, and subsequently forgotten, a thin smattering of French and of history. Women are becoming keenly sensitive to their inferiority to the men of their own class, and it only remains to afford them what they are already anxious to take to make *The Saturday Review's* Girl of the Period an extinct species, and to end, at least in most social grades, the condition of things whereby a roomful of young ladies becomes an unrespectable medley of tattle, chatter, and squeal. That girls are frivolous and empty-headed, and go sometimes for years without an idea not connected with dress, or men, or the very undefined thing which passes for society in American cities, is coming to be as mortifying and disgusting to themselves as it has been to their observers. If we are right in this, the way is already open for reform, and fortunately the means of reform are likely to be attainable. Already, we have seen it stated, there are between fifteen and twenty incorporated collegiate institutions for women in the United States,—institutions designed to afford young women as advanced a course of instruction as is provided in the colleges for young men. There is also the American Women's Educational Association—which means, chiefly, Miss Catherine E. Beecher and, subordinately, Mrs. Harriet Beecher Stowe—from which we trust to be justified in anticipating great things. The immediate object of this association, as stated by Miss Beecher, is "to establish institutions similar to colleges, with which shall be connected *endowed professional schools* to train woman for her practical duties as men are trained for theirs in professional and scientific schools. Each institution is to embrace a preparatory school, a collegiate school, and a professional school. In the last, women will be trained to teach in families and schools, to nurse the sick, to take care of infants and young children, and to perform properly all the duties of wife, mother, and housekeeper, and domestic assistant. Women will also be trained to secure an honorable independence" in many of the professional, commercial, and industrial avocations now monopolized by men. This movement is under the charge of lady managers, representing six religious denominations and numerous states, both North and South, and it is added that funds are assured in sufficient amount to justify a commencement of operations, which will presently be made in some Southern state, not yet determined. How far it is desirable that "female colleges" should be multiplied is open to question. Nothing but the absurd plan of setting up a "college" wherever there was room for a high school—Ohio alone has about thirty "colleges"—has prevented our having half a dozen universities at this stage in our history; whereas even Yale and Harvard are far removed from the standard they most nearly approach, and ought long ago to have attained, crippled by their want of means. It seems inevitable that the same blunder will be made with women's colleges. The movement can as yet scarcely be said to be under way, and the entire country is not ready to sustain six colleges on the scale necessary to their success, yet it appears that there are as many of them as, with all possible prosperity, could establish their *raison d'être* by the commencement of the next century. Those who wish to demonstrate the capability of woman to pursue the highest and broadest study may be assured of this—that they will do better by bringing Vassar College, and one or two others, to a point where they will really justify their professions, and where they can bear comparison with Harvard and Yale, than by frittering away ten or twentyfold the endowment among a score of imperfectly organized colleges.

The education of the sexes in common is a question which, especially during the time that must elapse before advanced girls' schools can be got under way, must claim a good deal of attention. To a certain extent we may regard the problem as solved affirmatively in this country, up to a certain grade of school. In Canada, however, it is just now the subject of rather

warm agitation. The grammar schools of Ontario, it seems, are closed to girls. This is alleged by the conservatives to be in consequence of the improprieties arising from the co-education of the sexes; but the liberals affirm that it is part of a scheme to reserve the grammar school funds to institutions that shall be practically preparatory departments of the universities, affording to boys a classical and mathematical training, to which the conservatives are unwilling that girls should be admitted. The pressure, however, exerted by the public, the press, the teachers' institutes, and the school trustees is such that it is thought the board of public instruction will have to give way. In Scotland the question has just been treated in two partially contradictory reports. The one was made by Mr. Fearon, the inspector delegated by the English Schools Inquiry Commission—the body which sent Mr. Fraser to the United States—to inspect the condition of Scottish schools; the other by Messrs. Harvey and Sellar, Scotch commissioners appointed for the examination of middle-class schools. In most schools in Scotland and in the North of England boys and girls are taught together. Mr. Fearon's estimate of the working of this system, as rendered in the last number of *The Saturday Review*, is "that the presence of the girls both civilizes and stimulates the boys, and that the opportunity of working with the boys strengthens the judgement and braces the mental faculties of the girls." The Scottish commissioners admit—the words being those of the journal just quoted—that "when boys and girls are pitted against one another in school-work, the latter do quite as well as the former. At one good classical school the second-best scholar, both in Latin and Greek, was a girl under sixteen years of age. At another, unsurpassed in mathematical teaching, the best geometer in the class that was examined was a girl of seventeen. In modern languages the girls are 'distinctly better scholars' than the boys, and at several schools which are named they did papers more advanced than anything which the boys attempted; but these, it is to be observed, were not classical schools, and where the boys had had a Latin training they equalled, or even beat, the girls in French." One more bit of testimony to the same purport comes from an unexpected quarter. American college professors are generally understood to have few things more at heart than the exclusion of girls from their institutions. But at the meeting of the American Institute of Instruction, at Pittsfield, Mass., last month, Professor Bascom, of Williams College, in speaking of the studies pursued at our colleges, said:

"I am inclined to believe that one difficulty is found in that which distinguishes these institutions from our high schools—the absence of young ladies, and the consequent want of that natural stimulus which the more varied contact and motives of a high school afford. The young lady is quicker, more enthusiastic, more intuitive in mental action. She imparts a certain brilliancy and life to the recitation-room. She shames the dull indifference of the careless, phlegmatic male mind. Her lively memory and imagination and perception would enter like yeast into the heavy torpid mass which compose the middle and lower half of a college class, arouse the sluggish young men to a better use of their powers, and cause a little light to find its way into their spirits. Intellectually, as well as socially, young men and young women are the complements of each other; and divorced in their training, the one class runs to froth and the other to sediment. In no place am I more habitually overborne with a sense of unrequited labor than in the presence of a college class. Restore again the relation between the sexes which God has ordained, for which He has made them, and the quick intuition and eager enthusiasm on the one side would blend with the profound reflection and patient purpose on the other."

We do not believe that the truth of this side of the picture will be seriously controverted. No one who has had occasion to observe can doubt that girls studying with boys are impelled by pride to make exertions which they would not—at least, do not—make when their only witnesses are of their own sex. And no one can have failed to note the bashful gaucherie of boys home from boarding-school when they find themselves in the society of the other sex; nor that this clownishness, together with a certain brutality, is much less characteristic of boys who have been educated with girls. But there are those who believe that there is another side to the picture. The Scottish commissioners say that the effect "of the boys upon the girls was not civilizing," and that, "in schools in which they mix together, the tone of the latter was of a rougher and less modest character than is desirable." We have had opportunities to observe this matter, and we are very strongly convinced that any such consequences are possible only under a faulty system of discipline. In schools where there prevails the absurd



practice of public "exhibitions"—absurd, that is, for girls who are not to be teachers, or fill some other quasi-public position—the pupils are apt to become more or less brazen, and to that extent justify the apprehensions of the opponents of women's education, that it impairs modesty and the gentle graces of womanhood. But, under such limitations as experience must establish, we cannot doubt that purity of thought and gentleness of manner will be promoted in boys and girls alike, and intellectual vigor in the girls, by doing away with the artificial term of monachal life which we now interpose between the intercourse of the sexes which, by nature's provision, prevails in childhood and again in maturity.

To this, of course, there must be practical limits. The co-education of the sexes implies home life, and its possible abuses in the cases where institutions of learning gather communities of students freed from the safeguards and restraints of home, are sufficient to forbid the experiment—at least by any but enthusiasts or doctrinaires. But the question remains about the higher and special education of women. The training of women for doctors is well on the way toward establishing itself beyond all possibility of opposition from professional conservatism or professional jealousy. In what branches of medical practice women are likely to excel is still an unsettled point, but that they are to have a fair opportunity to demonstrate their capabilities has ceased to be doubtful. Here the most objectionable features of the common education of the sexes appear. Certain branches of medical study—just the branches in which it is most proper that women should become proficient—are in their nature such that one would fancy their pursuit in the company of a mixed assemblage of young men would be impossible to any woman who retains the vestige of a blush. Yet this is precisely what the advanced "friends of women" demand. They are at present exultantly offering as an example for the emulation of American schools the fact that the medical school of the University of Paris is opened to female students, and that an American woman has just passed her first examination.\* Nothing, we think, could be more unfortunate, or more calculated to bring discredit upon the real extension of woman's sphere of usefulness, than the insisting upon such demands. The true solution of the problem is the measure adopted in New York. Women here have two medical colleges of their own—the Woman's Medical College of the New York Infirmary, and the New York Medical College for Women—in which the instruction is all that could be desired and the students have the same access to the public hospitals and infirmaries enjoyed by men. Other American cities, which have not done so already, will doubtless soon follow the example of New York, and thus no excuse will remain to women for obtruding themselves where their presence justly creates disgust. The medical profession is, of course, an exceptional one, and the arguments for excluding women from it become inoperative when applied to other institutions for higher study. In general, we hope, it will not be long before schools of art, science, technology, etc., are made perfectly accessible to women fit to avail themselves of them,—at least as a temporary measure, and until special provision be made for women. How well they are appreciated, what rapid and thorough progress women make in them, how many new employments they open to the sex whose respectable self-support has hitherto been among the gravest of social problems—these appear in a very gratifying manner from the operations of such organizations as the Cooper Union. From the multiplication of such agencies for thorough instruction in the industrial arts and sciences as Mr.

Peter Cooper's enlightened liberality has provided, or as exists on a more special and restricted scale in the Philadelphia School of Design for Women,—more real good will result to society and more essential progress be made in civilization than our government—which cares for none of these things—can assure us by any amount of territorial aggrandizement or any possible stimulus to the flow of immigration.

#### SUBURBAN NEWSPAPERS.

ATTEMPTS to establish suburban newspapers invariably fail. To other rules, which its history has made applicable to the daily press, there may be exceptions; to this there is none. The experiment has repeatedly been tried in Europe, with the uniform result of discomfiture and collapse. Even in the transpontine sections of London, densely populated and busy as they are, local papers never prosper. The part of London which lies on the Surrey side of the Thames, and which bears about the same relation to London that Brooklyn does to New York, is of itself a great city. It has miles of shops, markets, and substantial residences; it has churches, hotels, and theatres, little, if at all, inferior to those of the metropolis proper. Yet the daily newspaper will not thrive there. At intervals enterprising adventurers persuade unwary capitalists to venture upon such a thing; it is started with a great flourish of trumpets, local pride is appealed to in its behalf, it runs on buoyantly for a time—for such time, that is to say, as the patience or the money of its backers holds out—and ignominiously breaks down. Somehow the reading public will not support it. They insist on thinking it meagre, provincial, badly written, untrustworthy, a thin simulacrum of the great newspapers of the central town. Hence it has grown to be an axiom in London that no newspaper property can be worked into solid value that, not published in the city or Westminster, is yet published within twenty miles of them. The people will not believe in it, and will not buy it. They are accustomed to their *Times*, their *Daily News*, their *Morning Post*, their *Standard*, or their *Telegraph*, according to their taste or station, just as people here are used to their *Herald*, their *World*, their *Times*, or their *Sun*; but they care nothing for the little local aspirants, the representatives of particular precincts or suburbs, and, strange to say, the inhabitants of those localities themselves are precisely the ones who seem least inclined to recognize and uphold such special candidates for their favor. Indeed, we have often observed that the very existence, or attempt at existence, of such journals has been resented by the surrounding populace, doubtless for the reason that the offending sheets implied for the quarter of their publication an exclusion from the metropolitan pale, and to that extent a diminished importance for its inhabitants.

As we grow older, and Old World blunders, as well as successes, cross the sea, exactly the same experience is repeated in this country. Near Boston, New York, and Philadelphia suburban papers are alike the blossoms of a day. In the morning they flourish and grow up, in the evening they are cut down and wither. The rich men who are induced, on various pretexts, to invest their cash in such speculations, after going through the conventional routine of being assured that each freshly exacted assessment is the very last, finally submit to a total loss, and button up their pockets with a grim resolve to dabble in suburban newspapers no more. We repeat that such results are uniform, and there is good reason why they should be. Especially since the advent of ocean telegraphy and of the Associated Press system is the failure of suburban newspapers a foregone conclusion. Not participating in the advantages paid for by the metropolitan leading journals, such papers are necessarily destitute of that freshness of intelligence which constitutes the life-blood of a prosperous daily, and so present their readers the familiar, stale dilutions that render their news columns so notoriously flat and unprofitable. Were this the sole drawback failure might possibly be less inevitable. But, of course, no journalist of decided talent or ripe experience will accept a position on a suburban newspaper—since it involves the admission of his unfitness for employment on the press of the metropolis. The writers for the suburban press are consequently men of inferior grade, being generally either cadets of small country newspapers unable to procure situations on the great dailies, or the refuse of the reporting profession who have contrived to get themselves into ill repute in the city. The product of such choice pens is easily to be foreseen. They turn out journals miserably weak and

pointless, whose essays at original writing are limited to childish personalities, to school-boyish political and religious blackguardism, or to the drouthy gibberish they are pleased to term literary gossip, and which is of the sort that enlivens the tea-table of senility.

Whether a suburban daily could be made to succeed by inducing able and scholarly gentlemen to edit it, we are not in a position to judge, since in this country no such experiment has yet been tried. In England it has been tried, and with inadequate success. Here, as well as there, such scanty support as these sheets obtain comes, for the most part, from the class of small tradesmen; a class not distinguished for æsthetic elevation, and so unlikely to appreciate the species of excellence which our suburban contemporaries, with unvarying industry, have hitherto failed to supply. Whether creditable to their business tact or innate natural causes, the plans of these sheets, if offensive, have been so far sufficiently intelligible, and, if flaccid in material, they have been definite in form. Nauseous imitations of the worst style of Messrs. Greeley and Pomeroy, barefaced puffs of flash preachers and sycophantic eulogies of rich shopkeepers—whose vanity may be played on to the end of tapping their purses to help carry on the war, and so to eke out the toady's moribund existence—make up the staple; while delicate encomiums of slop clothiers and cheap furniture dealers (taken out in trade) are samples of the variety afforded in matters of detail. With a sincere desire to encourage all worthy literary or journalistic enterprises we cannot, in justice to the public, speak highly of our suburban newspapers. Whether regarded as interlopers, seeking to thrust themselves into niches already occupied by the press of a metropolis; as unworthy adulators of quack clergymen and swollen traders; as dealers in false pretences (by affecting to give news for which they have no facilities); as blots upon journalism, through their ignorance or disregard of the rules of gentlemanly propriety; or as corrupters of speech, through the wretchedly slip-slop manner in which they are habitually written, the suburban newspapers are, of many bad things in the community, decidedly among the worst; and it is fortunate that, being what they are, the public may be congratulated that these prints are now daily presenting redeeming features—in the shape of infallible signs of their progressive decay, and of their certain ultimate dissolution.

#### VERSIFICATION.

##### III. ALLITERATION AND IMITATIVE HARMONY.

THE basis of the Early English poetry was accentual and alliterative. The couplet had at least three accented syllables, beginning with the same letter—two in the first hemistich, one in the second. Beyond this the poet was confined by no restriction. In the location of the accent and in the length of the lines he allowed himself a pretty wide margin, and the alliterated syllables did not always commence a word.

"Pilgrimes and palmers  
I'nghten hem togidre,  
For to seken Seint Jame  
And seintes at Rome.  
Thei wenten forth in hire way  
With many wise tales,  
And hadden leve to lyen  
Al hire lif after.

—Vision of Piers Ploughman.

In later imitations rhyme was superadded to alliteration, e. g.:

"In December when the days draw to be short,  
And November when the nights wan noisome and long,  
As I past by a place privily at a port  
I saw one sit by himself making a song."

The practice of alliteration obtained also in the Icelandic and other early Gothic dialects, and is found as well in the literature of non-Teutonic nations, notably, we understand, in that of the Welsh. Latin scholars will recall such lines as:

"Et sola in sicca secum spatiat arena;"

and:

"O Tite, tute Tati, tibi tauta tyranne tulisti."

Nor is the figure unusual in Modern\* English literature, as in Spenser's verse:

"For lofty love doth lothe a lowly eye;"

or Byron's:

"The Bay  
Receives the prow that proudly spurns the spray;"

or in the epigram on Cardinal Wolsey:

"Born of a butcher, as a bishop bred,  
How haughtily his Highness holds his head!"

Used with judgement, alliteration is generally conceded to be an ornament to poetry. In oratory the

\* The period of Modern English is usually said to commence in the Elizabethan era.

\* The following letter, printed in *The Spectator*, was elicited from the university authorities by Miss Sophia Jex-Blake, an English advocate of the "emancipation" of the sex, who wrote, a year or more ago, a book called *A Visit to some American Schools and Colleges*, in advocacy of the common education of the sexes:

"MINISTÈRE DE L'INSTRUCTION PUBLIQUE,  
"PARIS, le 18 Aout, 1868."

"MADEMOISELLE: En réponse à la lettre que vous me faites l'honneur de m'adresser, en vous recommandant du nom de Lord Lyons, qui a écrit pour vous à M. le Ministre, je m'empresse de vous faire savoir que le Ministre est disposé à vous autoriser, aussi que les autres dames Anglaises qui se destinent à la médecine, à faire vos études à la faculté de Paris, et à y subir des examens.

"Il est bien entendu que vous devez être munie, par voie d'équivalence ou autrement, des diplômes exigés pour l'inscription à la faculté de médecine.

"Agreez, Mademoiselle, l'assurance de mon respect,

"DANTON.

"Mademoiselle Jex-Blake."



occasional repetition of a word may add force and emphasis to a passage; and on a similar principle the recurrence of a letter often gives vim and animation to a verse. Of the popularity of this seductive figure there can be no doubt; sensational dramatists and advertising quacks admit its power as well as those who "point a moral or adorn a tale."

We have to offer a few concluding remarks about Onomatopœia—which, etymologically viewed, means the embodiment in a word of some sound connected with the thing expressed, but in poetry implies the designed congruity of a verse in sound and structure with the idea it describes. Undoubtedly some of the most admired of these consonances may be fortuitous, as those most studied by their authors and appreciated by certain critics, have been unrecognized or denied by others. An illustration of the latter case is furnished in the well-known couplet:

"Not so, when swift Camilla scours the plain,  
Flies o'er the unbending corn, and skins along the main,"

which, some go so far as to say, is suggestive of slowness rather than speed. Of the former an example is probably contained in these fine lines of Byron:

"The magnet of their course is gone, or only points in vain  
The shore to which their shivered sail shall never stretch again,"

where the recurrence of *s*, *sh*, and *ch* harmonizes with and suggests the drops trickling down the moist sides of the wreck, and the dreary flapping of the drenched and ragged sails. There are some in whom those perceptions that trace resemblances between sounds and colors, smells and tastes, literal combinations and ideas, are wanting, one or all; but in others they have an excessive and morbid development; and, as Dr. Johnson observes, many supposed assimilations of sounds to ideas are imaginary and mistaken. But it is only the obtuse or the hypercritical who cannot recognize that Pope's canon, "the sound must seem an echo to the sense," is really obeyed in many passages, not the least noteworthy being that in the *Essay on Criticism*, where he illustrates his own dictum. In the following remarkable line from the *Odyssey*, with its curious structure and the frequency of its weak cæsuras, is there only a fanciful or fortuitous accordance with the rebounding of a falling rock from the hillside?

Αὐτὰρ ἐπεὶ τὰ πέδον ἐκ κλισίῳ λῆξ ἀνείδης.

Just as vividly does the well-known verse in the eighth book of Virgil portray by its rapidity and the number of its hard consonants the galloping or trotting horse:

"Quadrupedante putrem sonitu quatit ungula campum."

A smoother but equally rapid motion is imitated here:

"Ille volat, simul arva fugâ, simul æquora verrens."

Nor must we omit the "hoarse, rough verse" that depicts the ungainly Polyphemus, and which possibly suggested the subjoined line of Milton:

"Moustrum horrendum, informe, ingens, cui lumen ademptum."

"The huge Leviathan,  
Wallowing unwieldy, enormous in his gait."

—*Paradise Lost*, VII., 411.

We append Horace's onomatopœic description of the running stream, the beauty of which is so well preserved in Cowley's happy rendering:

"Labitur et labetur in omne volubilis ævum."

"Which runs, and as it runs for ever shall run on."

A propos of that stanza in the *Jerusalem Liberata* that narrates the sounding of the trumpet of Tartarus, Jean Jacques Rousseau has remarked that it requires a pure soul to perceive the imitative harmony—a statement that reminds us of Lavater's idea that only a handsome man can make a good physiognomist. Far be it from us, however, to taunt the inappreciative reader with such a paradox. Let us rather make a last effort to convert him by a singularly musical stanza from Gray's *Progress of Poesy*, where both sound and measure harmonize alike with the frolic dance of the Cupids and the stately grace of the Queen of Love:

"Now pursuing, now retreating,  
Now in circling groups they meet;  
To brisk strains in cadence beating  
Glance their many twinkling feet.  
Slow melting strains their queen's approach declare:  
In gliding state she wins her easy way."

#### CORRESPONDENCE.

##### FROM THE WHITE MOUNTAINS TO LAKE GEORGE.

CALDWELL, September 2, 1868.

WHAT to say of the White Mountains that shall be new in this day of guide-books and watering-place correspondents, is a problem that might tax the fluency and fancy of a Western orator. The New Hampshire hills have been so thoroughly explored, and so exhaustively, perhaps exhaustingly, described; have been so often made to stand as lay figures for the exhibition of the most efflorescent rhetoric; have been so bepraised, in short, and so trumpeted, that

nearly all the epithets of eulogy that the language owns have been worn out in their behalf, and but little is left to the most enthusiastic gleaner of to-day. Everybody has been there to wonder and rhapsodize and ejaculate; everybody has tried, and failed, to realize the merit of that unapproachable view from the carriage-road over Mount Washington, wherein the twin valleys of the Saco and the Androscoggin unwind on either hand, in long perspective, their rival beauties; everybody has invented just the sanie original commonplaces of admiration or awe at just the same newly-discovered points of interest—has said, "Isn't it awful?" of the Gulf of Mexico, and "Isn't it lovely?" of the snow arch in Tuckermann's Ravine; everybody has stifled a feeble thrill of indignation at the lofty indifference of the Profile, and exhausted panegyric on the picturesque wildness, the sombre hollows, and tumbling cascades of the Notch; everybody has paid the tribute quarter to that very obliging female at the Willey House, who shows you what nothing short of blindness could well have prevented you from seeing; everybody has contemplated with mournful interest the piles of stones where the victims of the great land-slide are not buried, and, looking up at the bare and frowning front of Mount Webster, has realized with a little trepidation the possibility of another disaster that should have more distinguished victims; everybody has enjoyed that delicious sunset picture of Mount Madison from Lead Mine Bridge, and the curious dissolving view which the homeward ride affords when, as the mists gather from the valley, the faint blue mass of the distant mountain seems by degrees to fade, and finally to vanish into thin air; everybody has drank the keen delight of that early morning stage-ride through Pinkham Woods, offering silent thanks to heaven for inventing the jolts which make a pretty waist fit so naturally and aptly into a protecting coat-sleeve; everybody, by this time, has been up Mount Washington on the railway (a really ingenious piece of engineering, over a grade which ascends in places over one foot in three), and gobbled dyspepsia at the Tip-Top House, and failed very much to see Portland Harbor; everybody has wondered whether the Grand Trunk Railroad ever did run on time, or has constructed its tables for eternity, whether its employees are not mostly of royal blood, and whether White Mountain landlords are not all millionaires; everybody, in short, has done as everybody else has done, and seen what everybody else has seen, and been generally swindled and happy and content. And if one's natural flow of speech proved inadequate to the wonders seen, there was the guide-book ever at hand to do all the justice to the subject of which the language is capable, if indeed it did not supply the proper emotions, as well as words, to express them. After all, it is a great blessing to know just what to admire and how to admire it, and I, for one, feel an immense weight of obligation to the people who make the guide-books. Especially for the gentleman whose labors assisted me through the White Hills, with no very important error in taste except thinking Mount Madison very much more impressive and satisfactory than its great hulking neighbor, I entertain a degree of admiration amounting to reverence. Language so extremely fine, and a command of poetical quotation so thorough and so apt, I have never met with outside the columns of a college magazine. I shall not interfere with his well-earned prerogative by attempting to describe the scenes which he describes so well, but prefer to set down some reflections, suggestions, and warnings, drawn from a not entirely pleasant experience, to those who may hereafter need his services.

There are two ways of seeing the White Mountains, one, infinitely the better, more thorough and more satisfactory, on foot, the other by selecting some comfortable hotel in a central location and thence making excursions to the various points of interest. As I have said, the former method is preferable; indeed, I can imagine no more pleasant or profitable way of spending a vacation than by strolling, staff in hand and knapsack on back, among these charming hills out of the beaten track of sight-seers, now following the windings of some lovely mountain streamlet, now climbing some dark ravine lit suddenly by a sparkling waterfall, breakfasting and dining by clear springs that bubble coldly over mossy rocks, sleeping, if need be, well and soundly under the canopy of heaven. This is the true way to see these hills, and the only way completely to comprehend their various and inexhaustible beauty. There is no importunate stage-driver to drag one, much reluctant, from contemplation of a lovely view, no inflexible necessities of railroad connection to delay one at uninviting spots or hurry one from interesting

places, no anxieties about luggage to mar one's enjoyment, no stupid arbitrary requirements of dress to interfere with one's comfort. The expense is trifling, and the gain in pleasure and health amply atones for the fatigue and necessary discomforts. I do not know how far, if at all, our American collegians have gone in imitation of the vacation reading tours of their English brethren, but surely the White Mountains are almost in themselves an incentive to the practice. Plenty of students we met and to spare on our rambles, but they had scarcely come to read. On every hotel register the interested traveller might peruse their distinguished names, with the titles of the universities they honored with their patronage and the dates of the respective classes to which they were about to insure a world-wide fame. In every stage-coach one was sure to meet them, embarrassing the mountain echoes with the most amazing college slang, sickening the mountain air with wonderfully bad cigars, and shocking the mountain purity with ambitious oaths; altogether proving that Mr. Jerome's liberality was not so very much misplaced and that his example might be profitably followed. It is only fair to add that the majority of these young savages attached to their names the cabalistic numbers '70 and '71, and that the older students, noticeable chiefly for an oppressive consciousness of greatness and distinction, were gentlemanly enough, especially the Yale men. I have often remarked that while Harvard makes more scholars Yale turns out more gentlemen, which is, perhaps, not less desirable. Can any one explain the reason? or is it some subtle influence in the atmosphere of Boston that so favors the development of educated snobs?

The other method I have spoken of is, as I said, to make one's headquarters at some convenient spot, and thence explore the neighborhood. Gorham and North Conway, one north and the other south of the mountains, are admirable localities; but in either it is well to eschew the large hotels. One can obtain quite as much comfort, and vastly more civility and attention, at one quarter of the cost, in almost any of the smaller and quieter hostleries scattered through the region. At the one where I spent a very pleasant week, near Gorham, the price of board was only \$7 per week, a sum which would scarcely carry one through a day at the neighboring hotel. To be sure there were drawbacks to this wonderful cheapness, perhaps the greatest of which was the herd of schoolma'ams attracted by this economy. There were nineteen of them in the house while I stayed there. Fancy living for a week in a house with nineteen schoolma'ams, and Yankee schoolma'ams to boot! There were tall schoolma'ams and short schoolma'ams, old schoolma'ams and young schoolma'ams, fat schoolma'ams and lean schoolma'ams, every variety, in short, but pretty schoolma'ams, which, with all due deference to the Autocrat of the Breakfast Table, would be, in this locality at least, a *lusus nature*. This preponderance of the educational element, and the general infusion of New England influence and intelligence, gave our little community quite an intellectual tone, which manifested itself in the turn of our amusements. Instead of wasting time in the puerile frivolities of the dance, we improved it by acting charades and desiccating the reputations of our neighbors, both of which, I am bound to say, we did equally and thoroughly well. Once, indeed, some lighter and more fantastic spirit essayed to get up a hop, and actually succeeded in bringing about an extraordinary sort of masquerade, called a Ghost Ball, wherein some fifteen or twenty couples, cheerfully arrayed as to the males in feminine water-proofs and black vizards, and as to the females in white sheets and masks to match, pranced in guarded silence through certain antediluvian square dances for two hours and a half. But I saw no evidence that any of the performers in this enlivening Dance of Death were at all acquainted with any of the modern round dances, which was perhaps fortunate, as the asthmatic cornet and dyspeptic violin who constituted our orchestra were apparently quite as ignorant of any music more recent than such as might have made the repertoire of the celebrated piper who played before Moses. New England taste does not greatly run to the pleasures of the dance; it savors, perhaps, too much of the Scarlet Woman and original sin to suit the righteous. At any rate, in hotels chiefly patronized from this section, I have found that Terpsichore languished, that the hop crop seldom flourished, and that musicians were in vain. To be sure the character of the musicians may have had something to do with this indifference, most of them being of a rank with the charming band I heard at the Newport Hotel on Lake Memphremagog, wherein the cornet



showed his independence and originality by keeping a key as far above the two violins as the violoncello was below. But this is true only of the second-rate hotels; at the best ones the music is generally endurable, if not fair. And then if one goes to the mountains for dancing and dissipation, they can both be found; but if to see the scenery, the smaller taverns, as I have said, are best. Good, wholesome food well cooked, clean beds, and civility may be found in them at moderate rates; and the company is generally quite as good as at the more pretentious and costlier places.

I had intended to speak at some length of my visit to Montreal, which I should feel inclined to celebrate, if for nothing else, at least for possessing in St. Lawrence Hall a hotel where one may unite the most courteous and obliging of hosts with the very worst possible attendance. But my paper is nearly filled up, and I must leave, as Jenkins says, to other pens the description of its quaint and substantial architecture, and its splendid wharves, from which the proudest of our cities might well take a lesson; of its excellently regulated cab system, and its superb markets, the envy of all New Yorkers; of its curious old-time nunneries, its fine churches, of which the English cathedral is, externally, the most impressive, as the Jesuit church is, internally, by long odds, the most elegant ecclesiastical edifice I have seen on this continent. The latter is really worth going to Montreal to see its remarkable frescoes and the exquisite taste that has presided, throughout, over its decorations. Yet even here economy, the curse of American architecture, has thrust its blighting presence, and the pillars are of wood, the pulpit looks like a box for a jumping jack, and the organ would disgrace a South Street Bethel. Time, let us hope, will remedy these defects and leave this church what it was clearly meant to be—a model of ecclesiastical decoration.

I designed, too, to say something of the numerous petty swindles and outrages to which the unwary traveller in this region is exposed, from the unscrupulousness or carelessness of railway officials. He will buy, for instance, at Wells River, a ticket purporting to carry him through to Montreal without delay, and subsequently find he must lie over night at a way station for the benefit of the hotel-keeper. He will be carried up Lake Memphremagog on the steamer to his destination, which, moreover, has one name on his ticket and another in the mouths of men, and, unless he is extremely alert, be carried back again to his starting point, without any intimation that he should have got off; he will be sold, as I was, at the general ticket office in St. Lawrence Hall, a through ticket to New York via Lake George, to connect with the Albany day boat by means of a five o'clock morning stage from Caldwell, which he will find on arrival is a myth, and so be obliged to wait for the night boat at additional expense. All these things and more he will be made to suffer without redress, unless he be uncommonly sharp or uncommonly lucky, and discover, as usual, that nobody is responsible.

Most of all, however, I regret being unable to say more than a word of that glorious evening sail down Lake George through a picture, or rather an endless series of pictures, never to be forgotten. One especially has imprinted itself on my memory. I saw it just as the sun was setting behind rosy clouds whose reflections slumbered softly on the water, and suffused with most delicious warmth of delicate color the faint cool blue of distant hills. In the foreground bright belts of farm and meadow lands sloped almost to the water's edge; through the foliage on the shore peeped here and there a modest villa; nestling between two hills on the right rose the white spires of a little hamlet. Before, behind, around us, a score of islands studded the lake with various beauty, and in the east the new moon was just rising. Anything more calm, more tranquil, more completely lovely, I have never witnessed, and when it faded as the sun sank lower I realized what Longfellow says of Evangeline "when she passed":

"It seemed like the ceasing of exquisite music."

## REVIEWS.

All books designed for review in THE ROUND TABLE must be sent to this office.

MICHAEL FARADAY.\*

PROFESSOR TYNDALL'S memoir "embraces two discourses on Faraday, delivered at the Royal Institution of Great Britain on January 17

and 24, 1868." It would be vain for us to expect, so soon after the departure of the great chemist and physicist, anything like the complete biography that must appear before the character of the man and his scientific labors can become matters of impartial history. Our anticipations that we should find the present memoir a eulogy are fully confirmed. The greenness of the memories of Faraday in the minds of his friends, the peculiar circumstances attending the delivery of the discourses, and, above all, the personal relations of the writer to the subject of his memoir, combine to give the narrative a rosier color than would be looked for by a public expecting to find the sober neutral tint that usually invests such a piece of work. "No materials," says Professor Tyndall, "for a life of Faraday are in my hands, and what I have now to say has arisen almost wholly out of our close personal relationship." It is this very intimacy, this warm affection and profound respect, betrayed on every page, that renders almost inevitable a certain bias of the judgement that we believe we discern. Remarkably well fitted as Professor Tyndall must be, from his high position as a laborer in the field that Faraday illuminated, to weigh and measure out to others the greatness of Faraday's works, a more faithful portrait of the man of science might have been drawn had the writer's personal relations been of a less happy nature. The warm friend is not always in the best possible condition to treat of character in an impartial spirit. But though circumstances have conspired to render Professor Tyndall an enthusiast on the subject of Faraday, no enthusiasm could be more pardonable; for when the heart speaks out criticism is disarmed of the weapons with which it would attack utterances that come from the head alone. It does Professor Tyndall more honor that he has suffered himself to be carried away by his affections than if he had proved insensible to their potent influences. If the gentle ripple on the surface of a stream cannot always tell of the strength of the undercurrent, it gives some idea of its direction. It is a pleasing thing; we may take it and admire its beauty, even while forced to study the heavier swell from a severer standpoint. No more beautiful portrait of Faraday will ever appear; let us gaze in the mirror that the friend holds up, and strive to believe that we see a truthful reflection.

Professor Tyndall's name quite precludes suspicion of a Boswellian feature in the execution of his task. We have not a little man extolling the virtues of a great man; but one of two fellow-students bespeaking for the other the admiration that he considers the due of his friend. It may arise partly from this, and partly from the close association of the two men, that a certain substratum of autobiography pervades the book. Perhaps this was inevitable; and, after all, it is not so undesirable, considering that thus we are treated to the scientific studies and opinions of two eminent men instead of one. But it is often unnecessary, to say the least, and not in the best of taste. It was not at all essential to introduce private letters and dialogue, and other personal reminiscences, to show the intimacy that existed between Faraday and the author, for everybody is familiar with these relations, and no one doubts their entire sincerity. It is, perhaps, never in good taste to extol a third person in, through, or by means of the first; though the "third vowel" may really manage a whole performance, it may as well remain behind the scenes and not distract the attention of the audience. But doubtless, in the writer's opinion, the letters, and other personal matters to which we allude, display Faraday's personal characteristics better than could have been done in any other way. He is certainly to be congratulated on their possession, if not on the use he has made of them—a use the only excuse for which is to be found in the nature of those very relations which, as we insisted in the beginning, render his task more difficult than it might otherwise have been.

We doubt the propriety of attempting to semi-deify anybody, for two good reasons. The attempt cannot be entirely successful, and, whether successful or not, it is apt to be suggestive of the "mutual admiration society" that somebody has told us about. The age of demigods passed away, we believe, somewhere about the close of the Trojan war. But if, as we suspect, Professor Tyndall differs with us here, he seems to have made a bold attempt in that direction. We may, or may not, agree with him that Faraday was "the greatest experimental philosopher the world has ever seen," and, furthermore, that Faraday's personal attributes transcended his scientific attainments; but it does seem to us that the line of demarcation between Faraday and other scientific men has been drawn too broad. Professor Tyndall's

discourses were, from their very nature and the circumstances of their delivery, addressed to passing moments. Admirably suited to the occasion as they doubtless were, they are not fitted to stand as lasting memorials of Faraday. Had the author written a biography instead of delivering a eulogy, this could not have escaped him. He would have remembered that even though the revered subject of his memoir stood at the time head and shoulders above a common level, it would not be always thus. The possibilities of yesterday are the probabilities of to-day, and may become the certainties of to-morrow. Positive philosophy, physical science, actual knowledge, advance with irresistible, unfaltering, if slow, tread. Happy, and worthy of profound respect, is the man who leads in his day. But as the plane representing the sum total of human knowledge ever rises as time passes, so rises, *pari passu*, the average human intellect. The teachers of yesterday are to-day's fellow-students; and if the experiences of to-morrow could be brought to bear upon them they would be pupils, not masters. Should Professor Tyndall's eulogy be followed by a full memoir, from his own or another's hands, we feel sure that some such considerations as those just suggested will receive due attention.

The very elegant, and even eloquent, language used in the story of Faraday's greatness is alone a pleasure to the reader. Too much praise could hardly be bestowed upon the style of the book, viewed from a purely literary point of view. The author's choice of figurative expressions and metaphorical illustrations, drawn, as was natural, mainly from the science he adorns, are, many of them, extremely beautiful. Take, as an example, the following (p. 170):

"Nature, not education, rendered Faraday strong and refined. A favorite experiment of his own was representative of himself. He loved to show that water in crystallizing excluded all foreign ingredients, however intimately they might be mixed with it. Out of acids, alkalies, or saline solutions, the crystal came sweet and pure. By some such natural process in the formation of this man, beauty and nobleness coalesced, to the exclusion of everything vulgar and low. He did not learn his gentleness in the world, for he withdrew himself from its culture; and still this land of England contained no truer gentleman than he. Not half his greatness was incorporated in his science, for science could not reveal the bravery and delicacy of his heart."

Or this (p. 37):

"We have heard much of Faraday's gentleness and sweetness and tenderness. It is all true, but it is very incomplete. You cannot resolve a powerful nature into these elements, and Faraday's character would have been less admirable than it was had it not embraced forces and tendencies to which the silky adjectives 'gentle' and 'tender' would by no means apply. Underneath his sweetness and gentleness was the heat of a volcano. He was a man of excitable and fiery nature; but through high self-discipline he had converted the fire into a central glow and motive power of life, instead of permitting it to waste itself in useless passion."

But we must not forget that the title of the work promises to treat of Faraday as a discoverer. Rapidly, yet in a masterly way, our author takes up in succession the chief experiments and discoveries of the great man, from the philosopher's analysis of caustic lime and discovery of benzol down to those later investigations that formed the crowning glory of his career. Professor Tyndall's admirable manner of explaining and illustrating, as he goes on, the character and relation of each experiment, makes everything clear even to the general reader. Notice, for example, his lucid explanation of what Faraday somewhat vaguely called *Magnetism of Light*, and *the Illumination of the Lines of Magnetic Force*. This is shown (p. 83) to be neither more nor less than *Rotation of the Plane of Polarization*—an expression that any one can understand. Did space permit, we might quote many such instances, all showing not only Professor Tyndall's thorough familiarity with the abstruse themes, but, what is practically better, his ability to render himself perfectly intelligible to others. His running account of Faraday's chief investigations closes with the following summary (p. 145):

"When from an Alpine height the eye of the climber ranges over the mountains, he finds that for the most part they resolve themselves into distinct groups, each consisting of a dominant mass surrounded by peaks of lesser elevation. The power which lifted the mightier eminences in nearly all cases lifted others to nearly equal height. And so it is with the discoveries of Faraday. As a general rule, the dominant result does not stand alone, but forms the culminating point of a vast and varied mass of inquiry. In this way, round about his great discovery of magneto-electric induction, other weighty labors group themselves. His investigations on the extra current; on the polar and other conditions of diamagnetic bodies; on lines of magnetic force, their definite character and distribution; on the employment of the induced magneto-electric current as a measure and test of magnetic action; on the revulsive phenomena of the magnetic field, are all, notwithstanding the diversity of title, researches in the domain of magneto-electric induction."

"Faraday's second group of researches and discoveries embraces the chemical phenomena of the current. The dominant result here is the great law of definite electro-chemical decomposition, around which are massed various researches on electro-chemical conduction, and on electrolysis both with the machine and with the pile. To this group also belong his analysis of the contact theory, his inquiries as to the source of voltaic electricity, and his final development of the chemical theory of the pile."

"His third great discovery is the magnetization of light, which I should liken to the Weisshorn among mountains—high, beautiful, and alone."

\* *Faraday as a Discoverer*. By John Tyndall. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1868.



"The dominant result of his fourth group of researches is the discovery of diamagnetism, announced in his memoir as the magnetic condition of all matter, round which are grouped his inquiries on the magnetism of flame and gases; on magne-crystalline action, and on atmospheric magnetism, in its relation to the annual and diurnal variation of the needle, the full significance of which is still to be shown.

"These are Faraday's most massive discoveries and upon them his fame must mainly rest."

## RECENT EDUCATIONAL BOOKS.

### II.—LANGUAGE.

FEW things can be more disheartening to persons who have the interests of education thoroughly at heart than the perusal of the text-books that at a certain period of the year make their appearance *en masse*,—superficiality attaches in so high degree to so many of them; it is so rare a thing to meet with one which contains any comprehensive views or scientific statement of the subject whereof it treats. Most makers of educational books seem to think that the meaning of education is the acquisition of isolated, unco-ordinated facts, or, worse still, the learning of how, with the smallest amount of intellectual capital, to appear most learned. Now, the mere knowledge of facts does not constitute education; a person might know all the facts that have occurred in the universe since the dawn of history, and yet, unless he knows how to exercise the faculties of his own mind upon them, remain an egregious dunce. There is at present a contest between the believers in classical education and the apostles of scientific study; if either party would once define what it means by education, all difficulty might at once vanish. If we could once clearly see that the cultivation and development of the mind are the great things to be aimed at in all processes of instruction, and that knowledge is valuable only in so far as it promotes the attainment of these ends, we should at once have a standard whereby to judge correctly not only all works on education and all text-books, but also all systems of indoctrination. In the case of text-books for giving instruction in languages such a standard is particularly necessary, because in no branch of education is there so much room for quackery and superficiality. The number of books and pamphlets claiming to point out a royal road to the acquisition of grammar and languages that appear every year, and the uniform failure of such productions to accomplish the ends proposed, show the extent to which the ignorance of the true meaning of education prevails. Whenever we take up a work pretending to impart knowledge, our first anxiety is to discover whether it presumes its learners to be human beings or parrots. This may seem a strange test, but the fact is that three-quarters of all educational books, and more particularly of those relating to language, are apparently intended for the use of parrots; so much care is taken to avoid all occasion for rational or intellectual effort.

There is one mode of teaching languages which has done more harm than any other, for the reasons that it is a peculiarly bad one and, at the same time, peculiarly specious. This is the so-called Robertsonian method, which has penetrated, even when not acknowledged, into almost every American text-book that aims at imparting a knowledge of language. It puts forth this very plausible argument: "The natural mode of learning languages is that by which children acquire the use of their mother tongue. Now, children do this almost unconsciously, and without any effort on their part, the result being highly satisfactory. If, therefore, we could imitate this natural mode, we should save our pupils all effort and accomplish our end better than otherwise." Let us examine this argument. When children begin to learn to talk their minds are very nearly a blank, their limits of thought are very narrow, being almost confined to the consciousness of needs which are very few, but oftentimes very urgent. They are driven to learn the use of words by the sternest of all instructors—necessity, which leaves them no choice as to the manner in which they shall express themselves. As they progress, thought and speech advance together; the suitable word suggests itself naturally, without any conscious choice on their part. By this process they arrive at last at self-consciousness and find

—"I am not what I see,  
And other than the things I touch."

As this consciousness becomes more and more pronounced, the blind receptive instinct dies out; choice, which is always effort, becomes necessary, and the condition of all further acquisition. If, after this, these persons, no longer children, undertake to learn a second language, they will find themselves under quite new conditions. Every time they make use of a new word they must consciously, *i. e.*, voluntarily, put aside another word which naturally suggests itself, and which has hitherto been to them the natural exponent of a particular thought. The new language instead of being a vehicle furthering thought is rather a hindrance to it, and ceases to be so only when they accept the circumstances, refrain from trying to resuscitate dead instinct, and adhere wholly to consciousness. Instinct, by a slow and unsystematic process, having blindly prepared a vehicle for consciousness, the latter, on arriving, examines this vehicle, finds the principle of its construction, and is ready, out of other suitable materials, to make itself other similar ones by a process far shorter than it originally used. In other words, a thorough acquaintance with the principles of grammar will enable a person to acquire a foreign language in one-tenth of the time that instinct took to teach him his mother tongue. We know

a gentleman, a linguist, who undertook to learn the whole grammar of the Danish language in twenty-four hours, and accomplished it. Since that day Danish literature has been an open book to him.

The only plan which will ever make the acquisition of languages either easy or profitable is that which makes appeal only to the conscious faculties, abandoning rote and all other parrot-teaching devices. In language there is nothing arbitrary; the principles of grammar are as certain as the laws of the human mind upon which they are founded, and the study of the one ought ever to be the study of the other. It is even of no great advantage to teach children from infancy a plurality of languages, unless they are intended for hotel-waiters or couriers. One of the greatest linguists of modern times says: "Whoever from childhood learns foreign languages alongside his mother tongue, will be able to speak only a number of foreign languages with equal fluency; but he will have no mother tongue in which he peculiarly thinks, and in which he can say anything peculiarly his own" (Heyse, *System der Sprachwissenschaft*, p. 3). The study of language ought to be conducted scientifically, and that it is in most cases not so, arises from the fact that few teachers have any thorough knowledge of the subject themselves. To suppose that every Frenchman who can speak his own language is capable of giving instruction in it, is one of the delusions which we have yet to outgrow. The Germans, who are the best linguists in the world if we except, perhaps, the Russians, and are certainly the best philologists, employ comparatively few foreign teachers of foreign languages; but then their native teachers are men of sound learning and comprehensive views. Let any one compare our miserable attempts at English grammars with the English grammars of Fiedler and Sachs, of Mätzner, or of Koch, written in German, and he will learn something worth considering.

Notwithstanding that we are obliged to speak thus severely of educational works generally, we must confess that in individual ones we see the dawn of better things. Here and there we meet with one whose author evidently knew his subject, and also how to put it in a form not merely convenient, but at the same time scientific. A fair example of such is Day's *Grammatical Synthesis*,<sup>1</sup> of which we would say a few commendatory words. In this work an attempt is made to show how, from simple elements, a language is built up, and how these elements are modified by the conditions of the sentence. Instead of beginning by telling us that there are certain divisions of grammar, such as etymology, syntax, etc., in the way in which most grammars do, it takes the simple sentence, which is undoubtedly the unit of speech, and analyses it, naming each part. The parts are then discussed separately—first, as independent units capable of being classed according to their signification or context, and susceptible of internal modification according to the point of view from which they are looked at; second, as combined and standing in relation to each other, as exponents of the movements of thought. The *Introductory Exercises* contain merely explanations of ordinary grammatical terms, with exercises upon the sense of them. Part I. takes up the *Simple Object*, and defines it as "that of which we think." Part II. discusses the *Principal Elements of the Sentence*; Part III., *The Modifying Elements of the Sentence*; Part IV., *Abnormal Forms*; Part V., *Construction*; Part VI., *Analysis*; Part VII., *The Symbolism of Thought*; Part VIII., *Explanation*. There are seven appendices, in which some points treated shortly in the text are subjected to more detailed investigation. Though we should object most strongly to some of Mr. Day's definitions, as, for example, when he tells us that "A preposition is a word used to show some relation of an object of thought" (p. 175), or that "The gerund is a noun-participle in the form of an inflection of the verb," still we must say that the book is, as regards both aim and arrangement, preferable to anything of the kind we have seen in English. Throughout there is a good deal of prolixity and lack of comprehensive statement, arising from the author's unwillingness to break with the old, worn-out nomenclature of the scholasticists. It will leave the student with a great mass of unexplained information on his hands, which is equivalent to saying that it has not gone to the root of a great many things. Still, the work deserves considerable praise.

Progress in the department of English Grammar must always be slower than in most others, from the fact that it has a two-fold current of prejudice to oppose. The first sort is in the teachers, who at a certain period of life cease to think; and the second is in the popular mind that, unthinking at all times, clings to old words and set phrases with the usual persistency of ignorance. The success of the plan of teaching mathematics by the process known as intellectual has resulted in its application to English grammar, and several works have been published for this purpose. The success in this, however, has been far less than in mathematics, because we come to the study of English grammar with a knowledge of the language and with a mass of prejudice, frequently wrong; whereas the whole matter of quantities is new to us, beyond, of course, the counting that children do almost spontaneously. This application of an intellectual process to grammar is essayed

in Professor Greene's series of English Grammars.<sup>2-4</sup> The author sets out with the true idea that the youth "learns to speak good English by speaking good English." This principle, however, it is apparent, would transfer his books from the domain of the dominion to the nursery. The series consists of an *Introduction*,<sup>2</sup> a school grammar,<sup>3</sup> and a parsing manual.<sup>4</sup> The first is designed for children as early as they can be put to this study. The method is synthetic, and proceeds from the most clearly defined points, as the noun and verb, to construct full sentences with compound and complex modifiers. The exercises are numerous; and, so far as the plan itself is practicable at all in the school-room, the book is a good one. In the second number of the series—the grammar proper—we have the author's exact statement of his system. Here we find some highly commendable features, such as the rejection of the absurd idea that the article of the old grammars is a part of speech; it is put into its proper place among the adjectives. This advantage is counterbalanced by the author's retaining the equally great absurdity of the interrogative pronoun, which is merely a relative pronoun in an interrogative sentence. It would be little more absurd, if at all, to divide verbs into transitive, intransitive, and interrogative. Interrogation is a matter of rhetoric, and not of grammar. In his treatment of the verb Professor Greene uses the word *passive* in three senses; thus, attributive verbs are divided into active, *passive*, and neuter; the voices of transitive verbs are two—active and *passive*; and, finally, transitive verbs have four forms—common, emphatic, progressive, and *passive*. This produces a muddle that no mind not already educated will be likely to get clear. The old potential mood—the author very justly prefers the word *mode*—is retained. This we think a mistake at the present period of philological progress. The cumbersome and clearly indefensible jumble of this may-can-must-might-could-would-should mood ought to go with the article, the interrogative pronoun, and some other rubbish that belongs to the era of Lindley Murray. The third number of the series<sup>4</sup> is an application of this method to the study of English by analysis, prepared for maturer minds.

A preferable work on this subject, it appears to us, is Mr. Bingham's *Grammar of the English Language*.<sup>5</sup> This author introduces some valuable features and rejects some cumbersome ones that have long held place in popular school-books. The regret is that he did not push these changes a little farther. Among the new features is the use of five cases in the declension of nouns. He adds the dative and vocative, and—of which there seems to be no need—calls the direct object the accusative instead of the objective. The need of a dative—indirect object—is clear when we bring both cases (dative and accusative) together in the same sentence; as, "Give me a book," where it is palpable that *me* and *book* are not in the same case; and so to designate them is productive of confusion rather than of clearness. The vocative has hitherto been very lamely and unsuggestively called the nominative independent. In conjugating the verb he exhibits the two necessary forms of the future tense—predicative and promissive—with a clearness that we find nowhere else. If we must have a future tense at all, this is incontestably the best way to present it. He gives the gerund (the old participial noun) its proper place among the parts of the verb; and the noun character of that and the infinitive is clearly pointed out. The tabular exhibit of the forms of the verb is a valuable feature; and the parsing exercises at the close of the volume, with careful references to the body of the work, are an admirable aid to both student and teacher. The most important rejections are the article, the interrogative and adjective pronouns, and the potential mood of the verb. The parts and sub-parts of speech usually bearing these names are distributed into their proper places—the article and adjective pronoun to the adjective; the interrogative pronoun to the relative; and the potential mood to the winds. In his discussions of contested points this author is fair and direct, and does not dodge the difficulties, as is too common.

Among the antiquated aids to education that persist in reappearing under the guise of new books we find Dr. Hart's *English Grammar*,<sup>6</sup> with its *Introduction*.<sup>7</sup> It retains the land-marks of age—the article as a separate part of speech; the potential mood; and the perfect, pluperfect, and second future tenses of the verb. In the last ten years we remember to have seen no school English grammar with less to recommend it than this—and that is saying a great deal,—with the single exception of Smith's *English Grammar on the Productive System*, which is our ideal of a poor grammar, and which holds its own like a perennial among the school-grammars of our grammar-deluged country. Dr. Hart in his preface—written, we are constrained by charity to suppose, at least a quarter of a century ago—

<sup>2</sup> *An Introduction to the Study of English Grammar*. By Samuel S. Greene, A.M., Professor in Brown University, and author of *Analysis and English Grammar*. Philadelphia: Cowperthwait & Co. 1865.

<sup>3</sup> *A Grammar of the English Language*. The same.

<sup>4</sup> *The Analysis of Sentences*. The same.

<sup>5</sup> *A Grammar of the English Language; for the Use of Schools and Academies, with copious Parsing Exercises*. By Wm. Bingham, A.M., Superintendent of the Bingham School. Philadelphia: E. H. Butler & Co. 1868.

<sup>6</sup> *A Grammar of the English Language*. By John S. Hart, LL.D., late Principal of the Philadelphia High School, a Member of the American Philosophical Society, author of *Class-Book of Poetry*, *Class-Book of Prose*, an *Exposition of the Constitution of the United States*, etc., etc. The same.

<sup>7</sup> *An Introduction to the Grammar of the English Language*. The same.

<sup>1</sup> *Grammatical Synthesis*. The Art of English Composition. By Henry N. Day, author of *Logic*, *Rhetoric*, *Rhetorical Praxis*, etc. Third Edition. New York: Charles Scribner & Co. 1868.



gives utterance to this striking opinion: "Exercises are to the youthful student what the *sums* are in arithmetic." From the two little books before us we are satisfied that Dr. Hart's young brain was far less troubled by the "sums" in his ciphering-book than it was while wool-gathering over his English grammar—if the latter came in his school-day studies at all.

All these grammars insist upon applying the useless designation of neuter to nouns that have no gender—names of things which have no sex. When there is no sex in the thing represented by a noun—such as *book*, *pen*, or *virtue* (not personified)—manifestly gender is not predicable of it at all, if, indeed, it ever is; and we might as well, in parsing *because* or *forty*, say that it is neuter gender.

If, in speaking of the grammars of Professor Greene, Mr. Bingham, and Dr. Hart, we find in any respect too little innovation, we are silenced in that direction when we open *The Common-School Grammar* of Mr. Fowle. And yet this writer claims that the system proposed by him is "what, in the language of politicians, would be called *conservative*, retaining all that is valuable in the earlier grammarians, and departing from them only so far as necessity, or a rational expediency, seems to authorize and require." Let us see what this *conservatism* is. The work is designed for preparatory schools, and is illustrated with engravings designed to impress the definitions upon the young mind. That idea is not a bad one. In Mr. Fowle's system nouns have but two cases—not so named, however—the agent and the object. That which has heretofore been called the possessive case he puts into the class of possessive adjectives, along with *my*, *his*, and the like. Thus, in the phrase "John's book," *John's* is an adjective of the possessive kind and qualifies the noun *book*. The only pronouns are *I*, *thou*, *he*, and *who*, with their variations of gender and number. Verbs have but two tenses—present and past. There are no auxiliaries. Accordingly, in the sentence "I will love," the verb is *will*, and it is in the present tense, having the verbal noun *love* as its object. In "I would walk," the verb is the past tense of *will*, and *walk* is the object. In "I might go," the verb is the past tense of *may* and *go* is the object. In "I shall be loved," the verb is *shall*, present tense, with the verbal noun *be* as its object, and the verbal adjective *loved* qualifying the agent *I*. And so of the rest. This simplifies the matter very much; its misfortune being that it simplifies perhaps a little too much, and is thereby not available for use. We are not prepared, however, to say that Mr. Fowle's grammar is not the best of the new works. The indications are clear that the day is not far distant when such "conservatism" as this of Mr. Fowle's will prevail; and the cause of philosophic philology need not suffer. The strongest argument against it to-day, we are free to confess, lies in the two standing obstacles to advance in grammar literature—the fossilized minds of our teachers and the petrified prejudices of the many. Mr. Bingham's book is far more carefully prepared, and strikes the desirable mean between the cumbersome fossil of Dr. Hart and the "conservatism" of Mr. Fowle; and, in the present condition of public prejudices—a sovereignty equal to kingly power—is a far more available book for our common schools than either of them. Since the appearance of a grammar of English by Professor Morris, a dozen years ago, perhaps, we have seen nothing so revolutionary as Mr. Fowle's; and the latter attains a simplicity in his rebuilding that the former utterly failed in.

This season has not produced a very large crop of spellers, but the quality is good. The series of three—*Primary*, *Common School*,<sup>10</sup> and *Complete*<sup>11</sup>—by Mr. Martindale presents some valuable features. Its use of the orthography of Worcester should insure its preference to Webster's *Elementary Spelling-Book*, which has such an immense popularity. In every respect this series is superior to Webster's book, except the one matter of being a series. There is too much of it—not too much for use, but too much for prejudice. Webster's publishers, with a vicious orthography, a so-so arrangement, poor getting-up but cheap price, have crowded out almost all other spellers in most parts of the country, all of which are

superior in almost everything to Webster. This is infinitely superior, and the getting-up is admirable. But there are three books to be bought: to be tried—but, worst of all, a popular predecessor is to be ousted—before these or such as these can be fairly received.

For nearly thirty years—since 1841—*The Scholar's Companion*<sup>12</sup> has held its place in many good schools in this country. More than a hundred editions—small editions—have appeared. Its design of combining etymology with orthography, and its classification of words upon both these bases, are useful features. It has a very useful place to fill between the primary speller and the reading-book; or, better, as a companion to the latter. It gives that attention to derivation and synonymy which cannot be given in hand-books for children; and is a capital thing to put the mind into a habit of thinking in select language. The importance of this will be manifest the moment we reflect that it is utterly impossible for us to speak good English unless we think in good English. This fact is too often ignored in the preparation of spelling-books; and the product under the circumstances is invariably trash—the just named Webster, for example, after it leaves the purely *primer* or first part. In the same category fall may-be forty other courses, series, spellers, and companions, published within the past forty years. This is not the best of its class, but it is a good one; and, upon the point of elementary etymology, is probably the best now in use.

Considering the utter impossibility of mastering the vast accumulations of literature with which the world teems, it would not be a matter of surprise if, in the absence of good guidance, the growing generation should become like Sterne's desultory student, who tore pages at random from every accessible author to fill his heterogeneous volume. To guard against such danger, attention has been paid from time to time by men of taste and culture to the selection of such choice specimens of prose and verse from the writings of eminent authors as might afford a knowledge of the spirit and style of works the perusal of which would require—when taken with other studies—almost antediluvian longevity. To meet the wants of various ages, in the rising generation, therefore, for whom so many books must be, as Bacon says, "read by deputy," Professor Hows has performed the duty of selection with discrimination and judgement,<sup>13-16</sup> furnishing the pupils likewise with such rules and precepts for the practice of elocution as may enable them to render their reading agreeable and profitable to others.

Mr. Watson's work<sup>17</sup> is clear, simple, and concise, and seems to be in every particular well adapted to the purpose for which it is intended, namely: "To supply the wants of intermediate classes in graded schools, and the great mass of students who commence learning trades." To young persons so situated the perusal of bulky volumes devoted to one subject alone is almost impossible, but they will find in the present compilation short rules, easy of application, and extracts in poetry and prose fairly combining interest with instruction.

Dr. Comstock's very elaborate work on elocution<sup>18</sup> is too well known to call for lengthy criticism at the present day; it now appears in a new form, greatly enlarged by Mr. Lawrence, who has enriched the volume by the addition of extracts from the writings of many of the great men whose genius has influenced the taste and opinions of the age in which they live.

The six abridgements of the work of our great lexicographer offered by Messrs. Ivison, Phinney, Blakeman, & Co.<sup>19-24</sup> are judiciously adapted to the various ages and needs for which they are intended. Of this series all but the *Pocket Dictionary* are supplied with illustrations, a decided advantage in our view not alone for the valuable purpose of elucidation, but because of the general attractiveness for youthful eyes which such additions supply. Each of the school dictionaries is well printed, and that called the *Academic* is well adapted for adult use when bulkiness is to be avoided and the small editions are thought too meagre. The derivations are given in this dictionary, as well as a pronouncing vocabulary of Greek and Latin proper names and other useful matter. Many will hold that no other dictionaries can be better adapted to the wants of American youth than is this series; and certainly so far as mechanical recommendations are concerned they leave nothing to be desired. *The Army and Navy Pocket Dictionary*<sup>25</sup> is a very attractive one. Indeed, we never remember having seen a volume that, in no greater compass, afforded so extensive and so trustworthy a variety of information as this handy little work. Not only for officers of the army and navy, but for all to whom space is an object—

such, for example, as surgeons and others in the merchant service, habitual travellers, and peripatetic journalists—this gem of a dictionary is unsurpassed and perhaps unsurpassable. The tiniest dictionary of all,<sup>26</sup> which may be regarded as a sort of descendant at the sixth remove, the most baby-like representative of the great quarto, is notwithstanding clearly and handsomely printed, and tells its story, such as it is, in the most satisfactory manner which is compatible with its brevity.

In the preface to Mr. Monteith's collection of linguistic pamphlets<sup>27</sup> we are informed that "The Robertsonian Method of learning the French, German, Spanish, Latin, and Italian languages without the aid of a teacher has, for the last ten years, been successfully tested throughout the whole European continent; and is, without a single exception, used in teaching the modern languages in all the educational institutions of England, France, and Germany. In London, Mr. A. H. Monteith, the most celebrated teacher of languages in the world, has arranged and perfected this system." This contains what will be information for most people, viz.: that the Robertsonian method "is, without a single exception, used in teaching the modern languages in all the educational institutions of England, France, and Germany;" and that Mr. A. H. Monteith is "the most celebrated teacher of languages in the world." That the former assertion is as near as possible the exact opposite of the fact we need hardly say; of the truth of the latter the work itself will enable us to judge. Having informed us in the preface to his French course that "French words being written in most cases exactly as they are pronounced, there is nothing to prevent the acquisition of their pronunciation by theory," he proceeds (on page 13, which, by-the-by, ought to be page 9 at most) to put his theory, which is nowhere vouchsafed to us, in practice. *Voyageurs*, we are told, is pronounced "by a well-educated native of Paris" wa-ec-a-shair; *leur chemin* is read lair she-min; *manger*, man-shay; *voilà* (p. 56), wa-la. We wonder whether Mr. Monteith, who, it seems, is a Londoner, talks of *weal*, *vine*, and *winegar* as being very good wictuals. The following note, upon page 17, is a gem:

"We are always disposed to laugh when we hear an Englishman pronounce the word 'Monsieur,' he generally makes such a mess of it. It seems impossible to teach this sound by the ear; not two twenty Englishmen, who have been taught the language by a master, pronounce it correctly, and yet there is no French sound more easily depicted to the eye. We have heard persons who had been one, two, nay, three years under tutelage, pronounce the word as if written *moo-soo*; now, nothing could be more grating to the ear of a well-educated Frenchman than to hear himself addressed by such a barbarian as *moo-soo*. The word *monsieur* is pronounced as if written *mos-yai*, and the plural, *messieurs*, as if written *mes-yai*; could anything be plainer than this?"

Certainly not, nor more incorrect. Opening at random the German portion, we come upon the rules for the formation of the singular (!) of nouns, among which are these:

"The cases of the singular are formed from the nominative plural."  
"Nouns that form the nominative plural by the addition of *s* or *er* to the singular, take *es* in the genitive, and *e* in the dative."

As an exemplification of these rules the author takes the word *Schatz*—a most unfortunate selection. The plural of *Schatz* is *Schätze*; but, by rule one, the singular in that case ought to be *Schätz*, which it is not. Not a single syllable is said about the *Umlaut*, which plays such a very important part in the declension of German nouns. It is amusing to be told that *uns* is pronounced oonts, *kaufen* ka-ow-en, *brachte* braxty, *Hunger* hoon'-ger, etc., etc. We suspect a German would be somewhat puzzled if he heard such pronunciations. In the Latin course, we are told that "without a Latin word is correctly accented it will not be correctly pronounced," and that "in order to pronounce Latin with propriety a knowledge of quantity, some acquaintance with English prosody, and the possession of a correct taste alone are necessary." A correct taste goes a long way, but we hardly think Phidias himself would have found it of much service in enabling him to pronounce Latin; what English prosody, which depends solely on accent, and Latin pronunciation, which is so dependent on quantity, have to do together, it is hard to see. It would be easy to find errors and misstatements, and proofs of ludicrous ignorance on almost every page of this book; indeed, we have never seen a work pretending to be educational which we could with more certainty and absence of compunction set down as a quack production. A royal road to the learning of languages there never has been, and people who are astonished at the ease with which famous linguists can use several languages know little what toil, method, and perseverance such acquisitions have cost. We venture to say that no good linguist ever made use of the Robertsonian method, or, as it should rather be termed, the Robertsonian absence of method. This pretended mode of learning languages claims to save the learner a great deal of trouble—to teach him unconsciously—a mode which could not be too severely spoken of, even if it accomplished its purpose, which it does not. Without a thorough knowledge of grammar no one can use even his mother tongue correctly on all occasions: in confirmation of which we might instance Mr. Monteith himself, who writes very faulty English. It is the purest folly, then, to imagine that a person can learn to speak or write correctly a foreign tongue without having a thorough and complete knowledge of its accidence and syntax; and the mere acquisition of a new language, unaccompanied by a scientific study

<sup>10</sup> This point is very pertinently enforced in this paragraph from a number of *The Athenæum* that reached us after the above was written:

"It ought to be taught in our schools that there are no genders in English. What! no genders? none at all? Is not husband masculine, and wife feminine? No! if it were so, we should talk of his husband and her wife, just as in French there is *son mari* and *sa femme*. There are meanings of sex in our words, but no grammar of sense in their junction. And our language will not bear imitation of those which have genders. We are reminded of this by an awkward translation of the report of a correspondent of a newspaper: 'The Queen has left our air—that is, all except the atmosphere of good wishes in which she lives—in search of health. The newspaper announcing the arrival of the Countess of Kent—there is a make-believe of *incognita*, and Court etiquette can swallow anything—gives a description of her retirement. Lucerne has 12,000 inhabitants. She emerges from her aquatic and sylvan shell at the point where the Reuss escapes.' If this be English, and true, the Queen has chosen to complete the *incognita* by assuming the character of a shell-fish. Of course court etiquette, on demand, would recognize the second transformation as well as the first; the inhabitants of Lucerne as much. . . . The proper way of avoiding such difficulties would be to write English; and then the Queen might go abroad without being taken to be under ostracism of any kind."

<sup>11</sup> *The Common-School Grammar, Two Parts in One; being a Practical Introduction to English Grammar, with Illustrative Engravings, designed for Preparatory Schools.* By William Bentley Fowle. New York: E. J. Hale & Son. 1868.

<sup>12</sup> *The Primary Speller, for Young Children. Designed as an Introduction to the Author's Common-School Speller.* By Joseph C. Martindale, Principal of the Madison Grammar School, Philadelphia, author of a *History of the United States*, etc. Philadelphia: E. H. Butler & Co. 1868. (Martindale's Series of Spellers.)

<sup>13</sup> *The Common-School Speller.* (Second Book of the Series.) Designed as an Introduction to the author's *Complete Speller*. The same.

<sup>14</sup> *The Complete Speller, for Schools and Academies; arranged to facilitate the Study of the Orthography and Pronunciation of the English Language.* The same.

<sup>15</sup> *The Scholar's Companion*; containing Exercises in the Orthography, Derivation, and Classification of English Words. With an Introduction and a copious Index. By Rufus W. Bailey. A new edition, thoroughly revised. Philadelphia: E. H. Butler & Co. 1868.

<sup>16</sup> *How's Primary Ladies' Reader.* By John W. S. Hows. Philadelphia: E. H. Butler & Co. 1868.

<sup>17</sup> *The Junior Ladies' Reader.* The same.

<sup>18</sup> *The Ladies' Book of Readings and Recitations.* The same.

<sup>19</sup> *Independent Fifth Reader.* By J. Madison Watson. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. 1868.

<sup>20</sup> *Comstock's Elocution.* Enlarged and edited by Philip Lawrence. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 1868.

<sup>21</sup> *A Primary School Dictionary of the English Language.* Mainly abridged from the latest edition of the *American Dictionary* of Noah Webster, LL.D. New York: Ivison, Phinney, Blakeman, & Co. 1868.

<sup>22</sup> *A Common-School Dictionary of the English Language.* The same.

<sup>23</sup> *A High-School Dictionary of the English Language.* The same.

<sup>24</sup> *An Academic Dictionary of the English Language.* The same.

<sup>25</sup> *The Army and Navy Pocket Dictionary.* By William G. Webster. The same.

<sup>26</sup> *A Pocket Dictionary of the English Language.* By William G. Webster. New York: Ivison, Phinney, Blakeman, & Co.

<sup>27</sup> *French, German, Spanish, Latin, and Italian Languages without a Master.* Whereby any one or all of these languages can be learned by any one, without a teacher, with the aid of this book. By A. H. Monteith, Esq. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros.



of its grammar, and of grammar generally, is a thing of very trivial importance.

We should have many of the same objections to make to Mr. Prendergast's book<sup>20</sup> that we made to Mr. Monteith's had not the author by chance "built better than he knew." Every one is aware how difficult it is to arrange correctly a German sentence containing a large number of auxiliary verbs, e. g., You will be obliged to have it fetched for me directly = *Sie werden es mir gleich holen lassen müssen*. We have known persons possessing a very considerable and very accurate knowledge of German who could not have put these words in the proper order without a deal of thinking, simply from want of practice. A work, therefore, which should supply numerous examples of these difficult arrangements could not fail to be of considerable service to such, and to such alone would we recommend this one. For beginners, who have not mastered the grammar of German, it would be of little or no use, although this is the purpose for which its author intended it. The work contains eighteen sentences of considerable length and difficulty, each clause of which is taken and placed at the head of a separate chapter of variations. This on the whole is a good method; it enables the learner in the first place to see clauses and phrases in their connection with others, and then to see what changes they undergo when withdrawn therefrom. These changes are great and numerous, and, having a somewhat arbitrary appearance, are exceedingly perplexing; some conjunctions, *dass*, for instance, remove the finite verb to the end of the clause, whereas others, such as *denn*, have no such effect. In order to speak German readily and correctly one must be thoroughly conversant with all these peculiarities, and we should therefore expect that the present very neat and portable volume would prove highly useful to many. It would not be amiss to commit many of its examples to memory.

To save his Philadelphia students the time and trouble taken in dictation—certainly the most tedious way in this world—Mr. Frederick A. Roese has given them and all of us a really excellent book for scholars a little advanced in German.<sup>21</sup> Both the arrangement and details are very well wrought out, and the little paragraphs devoted to the peculiarities of the respective prepositions are an admirable feature—just the places one wants to turn to settle some importunate doubt that dogs him even when he feels quite sure he is right. The author has adopted many of the salient points of Ahn's method, but evidently holds views of his own on many points. Take this with Woodbury's book, as a sort of correcting-plate to the Yankee magnetisms of the latter, and we have a course which it seems to us it would be difficult to improve.

Mr. Steiger's press seems quite prolific of pleasant little German works and works on German. Of Ahn's *Rudiments*,<sup>22</sup> and Oehlschlager's edition of his famous method,<sup>23</sup> praise is superfluous and antiquated. They are of the same class with Arnold's works in Latin, and are acknowledged as being in the very van of this peculiar line of educational endeavor. The editions of 1868 profess to contain improvements, of course, but on comparison we do not see that these are anything very important. The truth is that so much thought has already gone into the making up of these books, that they are scarcely susceptible of very much betterment beyond matters of detail and choice of words. Much more interesting, if not more profitable reading is the double series of little books which Mr. Steiger styles respectively *Jugend Bibliothek*<sup>24</sup> and *Haus Bibliothek*.<sup>25</sup> The former especially is charming, and the very best reading possible for the many advanced students of German who yet lack the faculty of utilizing their knowledge, and handling their accumulation of vocabulary with any naturalness and ease. The style is singularly simple and direct, and brimful of the racy colloquial idiom in which a German can be familiar without losing dignity of language or approaching at all to slang. Since Grimm's admirable little stories we have seen nothing that combines so much idiomatic pith with so much narrative interest so plainly and clearly put. The other—*Haus Bibliothek*—is simply a series of novelettes, done much better than ours, as novelettes always are in German. Why this is so we do not know, but so it is. The writers of serial stories, even for the common order of German newspapers, are a class infinitely above the miserable purveyors of sensational trash that cram our inferior American or English weeklies. The former write always correctly, and often with talent. In our noble tongue they could find no proper market at all, simply from writing too well for *The Ledger* and its class. Resisting the tempting digression into the reasons why German and French taste demand these running stories even in their daily papers, we have only in taking leave of the *Haus Bibliothek* to say that the stories interest ourselves, and to suggest that some amateur in German might find profit in more ways than one by translating the best of them for republication in English.

M. Jean B. Sue's *French Course*, comprising *First Lessons*

in French,<sup>26</sup> and *A Practical and Intellectual Method*,<sup>27</sup> professes to be in a certain degree a novelty, and to substitute the understanding for the memory as the faculty to be exercised in acquiring the language. The author would be no true Frenchman if he did not exaggerate to some extent, but his books are good, for all that. They show—what, as French scholars well know, every such book does not—that he does know the language well; and also that he has acquainted himself with the approved methods of instruction of the day, and has been willing to learn something by them. He certainly does make it easier for this generation than Bolmar's *Leviac* and the excellent, ever-detested *Télémaque* made it for us. The first exercises on words in the elementary work are especially good. They are modelled on the general plan first introduced, we believe, by Dr. Arnold, of brief written and oral translation into the language intended to be learned. But beside this modern improvement, the selection of the most familiar words is laudable. Most persons who acquire à l'Américaine both German and French, must be struck with the fact that when they begin speaking they find themselves most at home in German with colloquial ideas and commonplace objects, but hesitant on attempting discussion or expression of an abstract thought; while in French—probably owing to the sanctimonious and abominable *Télémaque* and such like fellows—they are glib with all the fine thoughts and fine phrases, and imperfect in the names of familiar things. To remedy this tendency this choice of every-day words is very wise, and looks like the doing of something more than a mere professional hammerer at hard young heads. But here and there the books abound in much illogical and loosely-woven statements, burdened with queer foot-notes and remarks. Still, we have not seen any book which comes nearer the model which M. Sue avowedly follows—the great little work of Noël and Chapsal.

Of the patient investigation and good judgement required in a translator we find many evidences in M. Sue's French version of *The Vicar of Wakefield*.<sup>28</sup> A very skilful interpreter cannot always be sure that he has rightly divined his author's meaning, and in such cases he can only use his best endeavors to come as near to the sense as he can; certain latitude must always be permitted, and it is only fair to say that M. Sue very seldom stands in need of indulgence. Goldsmith is essentially English, and it requires an intimate knowledge of the habits and associations of the English mind to appreciate justly in all cases the point of his satire and the subtlety of his humor. The book is designed for the use of those who are learning French, the English being on one page and the translation opposite to it, and is arranged in accordance with M. Sue's new method of teaching, concerning which numerous laudatory testimonials are prefixed to the volume. In his preface M. Sue makes an apologetic explanation of his reasons for submitting *The Vicar of Wakefield* to his pupils instead of what he is pleased to call the "revered masterpieces of French literature;" to those who remember the all-pervading sense of serenity and beauty which this delightful story leaves on the mind, who have dwelt with admiration on the finished style of this the finest specimen of Goldsmith's prose, the translator's patronizing condescension will be truly refreshing.

Far more original and novel, and to any of us who have hopelessly rusted our French and other elegances of college omniscience, far more interesting, is a work by one Mr. Agapius Honcharenko, bearing a singularly charming but unproducible Russian title which signifies *Russian and English Phrase-Book*, adapted, of course, for the Alaska market.<sup>29</sup> The enterprise and promptness of issuing are thoroughly Californian. When we add that the book contains the Russian alphabet in full, states that the sounds of the letters can only be learned from a living teacher—probably our friend above; it is fatiguing to write his name unnecessarily—and that "scholars in reading Russian dialogues will perceive the delicacy and richness of the language," we can judge that it will not enable a beginner to astonish either the Czar or our new fellow-citizens of Alaska. Still, a determined and laborious man might get a smattering out of it very useful, in conjunction with a little animated gesticulation, in settling business matters with customers, clients, or patients at Sitka. Yet we own the most striking thing to us is that the excellent A. H. is a "man in the gap," and rudimentary and occasionally careless as his work is—there are some odd mistakes in its English,—we do admire the true tact which created it to fill a foreseen public need, and only wish the same energy and providence always prevailed here as well as in San Francisco.

In classes we are gratified at finding so excellent a series of Latin text-books as that now appearing from the pen of Mr. Bingham, of North Carolina. It is similar to several already published in comprising a grammar, or first book, and corresponding editions of the classics usually read in high-schools and colleges. The first of these works is the Latin grammar,<sup>30</sup> which was originally published at the

South during the war, and is now republished in Philadelphia. It is not strictly—that is to say in the old sense of the name—a grammar; but is essentially a first book in Latin, comprising the entire grammar, however, together with the synthetic development of the language, upon the plan borrowed from the German and brought out in its definite form for school use by Dr. Arnold, of England. The first fair trial of this system in America was made with a republication of Arnold's book. The success was limited, but significant. The second step was an American adaptation; and in this the rival claimants for the leadership were Spencer and Harkness, of whom the former soon went under and Harkness had the field alone. After half a score of years, marked by a general adoption of the plan, Prof. Harkness found his edition of Arnold waning in favor. Teachers felt that the synthesis was too slow—that the development of the parts of speech, especially the verb, was not sufficiently rapid to be clear. The fault lay less, it is true, in the book with its English characteristics than in the shifting patronage of American schools. The feeling, however, was a reaction toward the old analytic method of the grammars. To meet this tendency Prof. Harkness prepared his systematic *Grammar of the Latin Language*—the best grammar, take it for all in all, that has thus far appeared in our country. This was available for those teachers who went entirely over to the former method. The reaction demanded more—something to meet the wants of those who objected to, without casting away, the newer method. To meet this demand Prof. Harkness prepared his *Introductory Latin Book*. The grammar-course of his series consists of three—the *Introductory Latin Book*, the *Grammar*, and a book of *Exercises*. Mr. Bingham enters the field at this point, and mainly as the rival of Harkness. We shall, accordingly, speak of his *Grammar*<sup>31</sup> in that relation. The Bingham school is one of the oldest high schools in the South. It was established by the grandfather of Mr. Bingham, and since then has been continuously conducted by the Bingham family. With the developed fitness of three generations, and the advantage of Arnold's and Harkness's works before him, it need not surprise us that Mr. Bingham has produced a better book—it is re-edited in its republication—than any of his predecessors. We think he has done so. The points of excellence common to both books we need not indicate. These are so well defined in the minds of all well-informed teachers that we need not spend time in dwelling upon them. In doing this, we of course assume the superiority of this synthetic to the former analytic general plan of beginning the study of dead languages. In this comparison it appears to us that Harkness has the advantage in that, 1, the *Introductory Book* is better adapted to the use of young pupils; and, 2, those who desire to return to the old method of teaching the grammar thoroughly as the first step can discard the *Introductory Book* and use the *Grammar* alone, bringing in the *Exercise* book in its proper place—which, however, is giving up the system. The points of superiority in Bingham are mainly—1, a still more rapid development of the verb; 2, better rules for the genders; 3, fuller exercises; and, 4, a union of the whole matter in one hand-book. We take it for granted that the superiority of the synthetic method of beginning foreign languages has been accepted by progressive teachers as the best. And, conceding this, it is not to be denied that the incompleteness of Harkness's *Introductory Latin Book* is fatal to its claim to superiority over Bingham's *Grammar*, which is ample, whether we regard it as a first book, as a grammar, or as both.

The works of both these authors are open to the objection that they do not, in their treatment of the verb especially, perfectly represent the present state of knowledge on that point. Both retain the cumbersome mechanism of four conjugations; and in their anatomy of them give us the three stems—first, second, third; or, otherwise expressed, the present, the perfect, and the supine stems. As, in the verb *amo*, we have *am-*, *amav-*, and *amat-*. All this must be changed; and Mr. Bingham discusses the matter and evidently sees the propriety of a change, although he does not strike at the root of the difficulty by making the change. He deems it too radical at this time. The result to him will be that his work will be the sooner swept away, to give place to a philosophical grammar adapted to school use. The true process has been rigidly applied to the verb in Greek by Thiersch and all subsequent writers upon Greek grammars. Very few Greek scholars of to-day are not ashamed to speak of the four conjugations of the Greek verb. And with reason—the best of reasons—they are absurd. The same process should be applied to the Latin. The stem of *amo* is, clearly, not *am-*, nor *amav-*, nor *amat-*; but, once for all, it is *ama-*. The tenses are formed by affixing to this stem the endings of the tenses respectively; the present tense-ending is *-o* (*ao*=*o*); the perfect, *-vi* (*=ui*); and the supine, *-tum*. And so also of the other tenses, of other moods, and other verbs; so, that is to say, of all the four—or more—so-called conjugations. Our complaint is, that while Mr. Bingham appears to be fully aware of the proper structure of the verb, he has not the boldness to discard the old mechanism and give us at once the new; although, we are free to confess, he has given us the best book of its kind that we have seen. The fact is, however, that so long as the indolence or ignorance, whichever it may be, of teachers makes the hand-book the main source of information upon the subject taught, so long must we submit to these artificial contrivances to save the trouble of living thought—these expedients for brain-work.

<sup>20</sup> *The Mastery Series. German*. By Thomas Prendergast. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1868.

<sup>21</sup> *A Grammar of the German Language*. By F. A. Roese. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1864.

<sup>22</sup> *Rudiments of the German Language*. By Dr. F. Ahn. New York: E. Steiger. 1868.

<sup>23</sup> *Ahn's New Practical and Easy Method of Learning the German Language*. With pronunciation, numerous corrections, etc. By H. Oehlschlager. The same.

<sup>24</sup> *Jugend Bibliothek*. 4 vols. The same.

<sup>25</sup> *Haus Bibliothek*. 2 vols. The same.

<sup>26</sup> *First Lessons in French*. By Professor Jean B. Sue, A.M. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1866.

<sup>27</sup> *A New Practical and Intellectual Method of Learning French*. The same.

<sup>28</sup> *The Vicar of Wakefield*. By Oliver Goldsmith. Arranged as a guide for the construction of French Sentences, etc. The same.

<sup>29</sup> *Russian and English Phrase Book*. By Agapius Honcharenko. San Francisco: A. Roman & Co. 1868.

<sup>30</sup> *A Grammar of the Latin Language: For the Use of Schools*. With Exercises and Vocabularies. By Wm. Bingham, A.M., Superintendent of the Bingham School. Fourth Edition. Philadelphia: E. H. Dutton & Co. 1865.

<sup>31</sup> *Grammar of the Latin Language*. By Wm. Bingham, A.M., Superintendent of the Bingham School. Philadelphia: E. H. Dutton & Co. 1865.



A compendious Latin grammar<sup>37</sup> has quite recently appeared from a Boston publishing house that aims in the same direction as does the series of Harkness—a reaction from the out-and-out synthesis of Arnold's course toward that in use previously. The Messrs. Allen are to have only two books—a *Grammar* and a book of *Exercises* (not yet ready)—while Harkness has three—an *Introductory Book*, a *Grammar*, and a book of *Exercises* (just now ready); and, following these, a *Reader*. The claims of the series of the Messrs. Allen cannot be fairly discussed yet, until the book of *Exercises* shall appear. The favorable points that present themselves in their *Grammar* are—1, the treatment of the subjunctive mood, which is novel and forcible; and, 2, the exhibit of the gerund and gerundine. The syntax, for a compend, is especially fine; and the illustrative examples given in a form superior to any that we have seen. The main objection is that it presupposes some elementary book as introductory to it, whereas the plan does not embrace any such.

Of the school editions of the classics that Mr. Bingham proposes to bring out, the *Cæsar*<sup>38</sup> before us is the only one that has thus far appeared. It is a successful hand-book. The notes are more numerous than those of Anthon, so popular with a certain class of teachers; but they do not consist so largely of mere translations of the text, but relate to syntax and etymology—matters more vitally important to the earnest student. The notes are fuller in this regard, especially in the first book, than those of any of the recent editions of the *Commentaries* that we have seen. The notes and vocabulary are very handsomely printed—the leading words in both being given in a heavy type that arrests the eye readily; and this combination in one volume is very convenient. The map and bridge-illustration are creditable to the publisher; and the volume itself, binding and all, is in the best style of school-books of the day.

The excellent plan of preparatory hand-books of Latin prose, and, separately, of Latin poetry, undertaken several years ago by Mr. Hanson, of Maine, has given us in two volumes as much of each, with notes and vocabularies, as is usually studied in high schools. The idea was a good one, and had the incidental advantage of economy. An abridgement of the *Hand-Book of Latin Poetry* has been called for; and the work before us<sup>39</sup> is the *Hand-Book* abridged by omitting the selections from Horace. Ovid is put before Virgil, for the sufficient reason that his Latin is easier.

For the use of theologico-classical students, Professors Hackett and Tyler have prepared a new edition of Plutarch's ethical discussion of the Deity's dealings with evil-doers.<sup>40</sup> The first edition appeared a quarter of a century ago; and has held its well-defined place, with very little utility, however, in the educational world since that time. The call for a new edition is no special occasion, but comes in the fulness of time, when the old one has been exhausted. The notes and arguments are principally argumentative and exegetical of the teachings of Plutarch, and not of the Greek in which he wrote.

An excellent Latin lexicon which contains all the information required in a school or college course, yet avoids the bulk inseparable from the fulness demanded for advanced classical and philological scholars, is Dr. Bullions's *Latin-English Dictionary*.<sup>41</sup> In spite of the impression conveyed by the date on the title-page that the work is something more than new, it has been before the public some six years and is too well known to require much description at our hands. Its distinctive feature is its having hit the medium between the meagre vocabularies, which give the student little more than the meaning of the words, and the unwieldiness of those well-known twins, Andrews and Liddell & Scott, which fatigue a boy who has to grope through much he does not need to know and cannot understand, to get at what he requires. At the same time Dr. Bullions has availed himself of German philological progress since the dates at which the school lexicons in general use were completed. The foundation of this work was one of the elaborate German-Latin dictionaries, Dr. William Freund's *Gesamtwörterbuch*, admirable for its compression and its embodiment of the results of the best philological criticism, as well as its systematic classifications of meanings and shades of meaning; and to this have been added new words and phrases and nearly 7,000 synonyms, with concise indications of the discriminations which must be observed in their use. In the same volume is embodied an adaptation of Dr. Kaltschmidt's *English-Latin Dictionary*.

ary,<sup>42</sup> which, on the one hand, indicates what words are unclassical, but, on the other, subjects the student to the annoyance of turning to the Latin word in the first part of the book to ascertain its quantity, gender, declension, conjugation, etc.—a sacrifice of convenience to brevity that would be very objectionable if this part of the work were frequently used, which, we fancy, is not. For the rest, the exterior aspect of the volume is handsome, but in order to get nearly thirteen hundred pages into it a paper has been used which is not only thin, but mean in quality, so that the close print often shows through the pages, and a little such use as school dictionaries are subject to would suffice to make the volume shabby.

A remarkably beautiful little Hebrew-English lexicon,<sup>43</sup> designed for the use of theologians, has been published in London and New York. But we cannot at present put our hand on the copy we have received, and must defer description of it to another occasion.

### III. HISTORY, INTELLECTUAL AND MORAL SCIENCE, ETC.

THAT they have been before the public for fifteen years or upward, during which time they have passed through from eighteen to thirty editions, and are now remodelled by the light of long practical use, in conformity with the recent progress of historical science, and made to include the most recent historical events—these considerations constitute a strong presumption in favor of the school histories published by Messrs. Murphy & Co.<sup>44-47</sup> Mr. Kerney's smaller book,<sup>44</sup> originally confined to modern history, chiefly that of America, and adapted to the use of children from six to ten years of age, has this year been reissued with additions by another hand. These consist—first, of the prefix of sacred history and that of the Asiatic nations, and of Greece and of Rome, the whole within the compass of 50 small pages of large print; and, next, by the extension of the chapters of modern history so as to cover the events of the last eighteen years,—which usually, with no notable exception but our own, is accomplished in a paragraph. In our case the civil war requires a chapter of four pages, and the editor is entitled to very high commendation for his two-fold success, in getting a really clear and faithful conception of the outbreak and progress of the struggle within such space; and in the perfect freedom of his narrative, both here and throughout, from any coloring at which the most censorious partisan could take umbrage. In so elementary a book as this there may be some excuse for the appending of marginal questions, which in general only serve to check the animation and alertness of the teacher and accustom the pupils to a mechanical habit of memorizing instead of mastering the subject. For any but the veriest beginners the questions here afford too much assistance, and sometimes they are puerile. Thus, we read at the commencement of American History: "Before studying the history of other countries we should be well acquainted with the history of our own. For it would be a great shame to our little readers, if they were able to relate all the events [!] that took place in Greece and Rome, and at the same time remain ignorant of the history of our own country," etc. The questions accompanying this passage are: "Before studying the history of other countries, what is said? What would be a great shame?" Still, fairness obliges us to add that these—together with the fact that the observation quoted follows, in the enlarged edition, the completion of ancient history—are the worst things we have found in the little book. Further, nothing short of actual examination would have convinced us that a writer could at the same time eschew naked and unadorned detail and give a clear, just notion of the world's history in a narrative which, if printed in this type, would fill but twelve or fifteen pages like those before the reader.

Mr. Kerney's larger work<sup>45</sup> is open to the objections inseparable from compendious history. His preface contains an argument of the point which fails to convince us. In more copious history, he says, "the memory is frequently overcharged with a multiplicity of circumstances which often obscure the most important facts; while in the former [the compendium], the most important events are only [only are?] presented, and easily retained." Nothing, we fancy, more strongly tends to dismay and disgust a child than a Gradgrind's or a Dryasdust's collection of facts. When they are poured in upon him too thick and fast for him to master them in detail, too compact to be disjoined and stored away singly, his mind is simply overwhelmed, abandons the effort to assimilate them, retains them, if at all, only long enough to make a momentary exhibition of their possession, and then rids itself of them with loathing. We have very little regard for text-books which treat names and dates as the end of history, instead of its means. And we believe a bright child would really get more good—more taste, at any

rate, for historical study—by mastering the story of Joan of Arc or George Washington, seeing the sequence and interdependence of events, the actuating motives, the workings of human nature, in fine, by really understanding the "multiplicity of circumstances which often obscure"—save the mark!—even one of the least "important facts," than by accumulating every name and date from Adam to Andrew Johnson. But Mr. Kerney's preface should be read a little further. These statements in it we believe to be perfectly justified by his practice: "It has been the studied design of the author to avoid all sarcastic remarks, and all useless invectives. . . . By thus curtailing observations, which frequently make up a material portion of works of this nature, he has been enabled to insert a much greater amount of historical matter than is usually met with in the same number of pages. In speaking of religion the most respectful language has been employed, and no expression has been used that could, in the remotest degree, wound the feelings of the professors of any creed." In the last respect, and in the kindred domain of politics, the reasonable Protestant and the reasonable Roman Catholic, the ex-Confederate and the Radical, may seek vainly for cause of offence, excepting always those immoderate persons whom nothing contents short of abuse of their opponents. And in the matter of the narrative the author has, in fact, employed a concise style to such advantage that his work is by no means barren of illustrative incident, and is not a pronounced example of the compendiousness we have censured. For pupils who are to be got over the ground rapidly, or for their elders who wish to revive their memory of events, we should not know where to find a better book. But it has one decided fault. The publisher's preface to this new edition assures us of the "introduction" of new chapters, completing it up to last year. By way of test we turned to the end of the respective divisions and found that French history, for instance, ended (p. 174) with the flight of Charles X. and the accession of "Louis Philip (*sic*), the present king;"—Prussian (p. 259), with the statement that "nothing of importance has, since that period [Waterloo and the treaty of Vienna], transpired in Prussia," and that Frederick has been devoting himself to "promoting the arts of peace;"—Italian (p. 270), with Pius VII.'s restoration during Napoleon I.'s exile in Elba,—and so on. True, the continuations, out of regard to the stereotype plates, are appended, not introduced, but the pupil will in most cases have accepted the false statement one or two hundred pages before he comes to its correction,—and most of us can remember how frequently it happens that a class gets to the end of a history-book.

Dr. Fredet's histories<sup>46-47</sup> are entitled to nearly the same praise on the score of impartiality as Mr. Kerney's, beside which he recognizes the principle, which he states in the preface to his *Ancient History*, that "excessive brevity strips history of its principal usefulness and interest by crowding together, within a few pages, a multitude of events with but few particulars and circumstances, and, consequently, without adequate means to distinguish the facts with precision, and to state with accuracy their various degrees of importance." He follows the true plan of carrying on his narrative by periods, instead of the easier, but necessarily fragmentary and delusive, system of following a nation from its beginning down. He has struck, we think, the just mean in the scale of his book, and has made it neither barren nor diffuse, but a work which will prove interesting to students of scriptural or classical times.

His *Modern History*<sup>47</sup> follows the same design, though in one respect we do not like its arrangement. He begins it with the Battle of Actium, B.C. 31, "although a shorter duration than this is commonly, though arbitrarily, assigned to modern history," justifying this on the ground that this is "the memorable epoch which is termed in the Scriptures *the fulness of time*." To the Battle of Actium there need be no objection as a historical dividing mark; but Dr. Fredet's plan, with its eight parts, fails to enforce upon the pupil's mind any notion of mediæval history, or to suggest that there is another transition period, that of the failure to create a midland kingdom of Burgundy and the overthrow of feudalism, a period which separates essentially distinct ages. We have said that, politically and in religious matters, Dr. Fredet's histories are fair; but, unlike Mr. Kerney's, it is impossible not to be made clearly aware what is the writer's faith. He tells us, for instance (p. 369), that "Luther himself had declared that it was lawful, and even necessary, to take up arms in order to defend and propagate the Reformation!"—where to a Protestant might retort, "to prevent its bloody extinction." So we find conveyed the views of Roman Catholic historians concerning controverted characters—sympathy or glorification of Mary, Queen of Scots, of Henry of Navarre, of Philip II; condemnation of Elizabeth and Murray, of Cavour, and not the least mention of the first William of Orange. Nevertheless, it would be extreme bigotry in any Protestant to condemn the book on the score of anything that we have been able to find in it; though we fear there are enough to be dissatisfied with respectful treatment of Protestantism which is unaccompanied by vilification of Popery. In Dr. Fredet's work, as in Mr. Kerney's, we made the supple-

<sup>37</sup> *Manual of Latin Grammar*. Prepared by William F. Allen, A.M., Professor of Ancient Languages and History in the University of Wisconsin; and Joseph H. Allen, Cambridge, Mass. Boston: Edwin Ginn & Woolworth, Ainsworth, & Co. 1868.

<sup>38</sup> *Cæsar's Commentaries on the Gallic War*. With a Vocabulary and Notes. By Wm. Bingham, A.M., etc. Philadelphia: E. H. Butler & Co. 1868.

<sup>39</sup> *Selections from Ovid and Virgil: a Shorter Hand-Book of Latin Poetry*. With Notes and Grammatical References. By J. H. Hanson, Principal of the Classical Institute, Waterville, Me., and W. J. Rolfe, Master of the High School, Cambridge, Mass. Boston: Crosby & Ainsworth. New York: O. S. Felt. 1867.

<sup>40</sup> *Plutarch on the Duty of the Deity in Punishing the Wicked*. Revised Edition, with Notes, by Professors H. B. Hackett and W. S. Tyler. "Οὐρανὸν γὰρ ἐόντων τὰ μὴ νόμον ἔχοντα οὐκ ἐστὶν τοῦ νόμου ποιῶν, οὐτοὶ νόμον μὴ ἔχοντες ταῦτοισι ἐλατὸς νόμος, οὐδὲν ἐνδεκνύται τὸ ἔργον τοῦ νόμου γράττων ἐν ταῖς καρδίαις αὐτῶν."—Rom. ii. 14, 15. "Sive argumentum spectes, nullum majus graviusque est: sive explicandi rationem, adeo subtiliter elegantique disputavit Plutarchus, ut, summorum virorum judicio, proximæ ad Christianæ doctrinæ præstantiam accesserit."—Wyttenbach. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1867.

<sup>41</sup> *A Compendious and Critical Latin English Dictionary*. With a brief comparison and illustration of the most important Latin Synonyms. By the Rev. Peter Bullions, D.D.; and

<sup>42</sup> *English-Latin Dictionary*. To accompany Bullions's *Latin-English Dictionary*. New York: Sheldon & Co. 1869.

<sup>43</sup> *Hebrew-English Lexicon*. Containing all the Hebrew and Chaldean words in the Old Testament Scriptures, with their meanings in English. New York: John Wiley & Sons; London: Samuel Bagster & Sons. 1868.

<sup>44</sup> *The First Class Book of History*. Designed for pupils commencing the study of History; with questions, etc. By M. J. Kerney, A.M. Twenty-second revised edition, enlarged by the addition of lessons in Ancient History. Baltimore: John Murphy & Co. 1868.

<sup>45</sup> *A Compendium of Ancient and Modern History*; with questions, etc. Also an appendix, containing the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution of the United States, a biographical sketch of eminent personages, with a chronological table of remarkable events, etc., etc., from the Creation to the year 1867. By the same. Thirtieth revised and enlarged edition. The same. 1867.

<sup>46</sup> *Ancient History: from the Dispersion of the Sons of Noe to the Battle of Actium and change of the Roman Republic into an Empire*; with questions, etc. By Peter Fredet, D.D., Professor of History in St. Mary's College, Baltimore. Eighteenth edition, carefully revised, enlarged, and improved. Baltimore: John Murphy & Co. 1867.

<sup>47</sup> *Modern History: from the Coming of Christ and change of the Roman Republic into an Empire to the Year of our Lord, 1867*; with questions, etc. By the same. Twenty-second edition, revised, etc. The same. 1867.



ment to Prussian history a test case. Both of them state the cause of the Seven Weeks' War in terms less favorable to Prussia than the facts of the case warrant, and in both there are numerous little incidental errors when accuracy was quite attainable. Mr. Kerney, for instance, we suppose with a recollection of the battle of Cregy in his mind, says that at Königgrätz, "the famous needle-gun was used, for the first time, by the Prussians" (p. 365),—the fact being that throughout the severe campaign which Königgrätz terminated the Prussians had been largely indebted to the needle-gun for their invariable success in a score of combats as brilliant and as well contested, if on no such scale, as that of Sadowa. So Dr. Fredet—who does not, however, dwell upon the "iniquitous war"—speaks of Field-Marshal de Benedek and of Gitschim, and conveys the impression that the Austrian overthrow was due to their being "compelled to accept a general engagement against enemies far superior in number" (p. 493),—the fact, as very well established and, we believe, not seriously called in question, being that the Austrian and Saxon troops engaged numbered 200,000, with 600 guns (Benedek a few days after the battle had collected at Olmütz 160,000 of his men, while 40,000 were lost in the battle), while the Prussians mustered 260,000 men, with 816 guns, but 60,000 of these troops never fired a shot,—so that, in the point of numbers, there was singularly little disproportion. The matters, to be sure, are slight, but where exact information is so easily accessible we have a right to demand its use in the preparation of statements presented by the thousand-fold to pupils who accept them implicitly. As to the matter of questions, we should add, the author puts them all together at the end of the book, so that, while lazy or ignorant teachers can use them, the temptation is not so great to pupils to learn only with reference to these leading-strings.

Collected facts based upon historical testimony, and—where it has been possible—upon the evidence of original witnesses, form the ground-work of Mr. Berard's *School History*,<sup>40</sup> which embodies the prominent political events and social circumstances in the history of America since its discovery by Columbus. The work possesses the merit of being clear, concise, and readable, and is well adapted to fulfil its purpose.

A laudable desire of awakening in the minds of school-going America an interest in the annals of their forefathers prompted the indefatigable and voluminous writer, Mr. Goodrich, to publish a work for the use of schools on the history of the United States,<sup>41</sup> and, among many others, *A Pictorial History of the World*,<sup>42</sup> which will long continue to be used by intelligent teachers in our own country, and which are likewise received and acknowledged as manuals for instruction abroad. The established popularity of these works shows that just notions of the use and importance of a well-grounded knowledge of historical facts still prevails, and that it is desirable, in the education of the young, to guard against the growing tendency toward making history a vehicle for eloquence and philosophical disquisition. Before entering into the deeper and more comprehensive uses and objects of history, its great landmarks must be fully impressed upon the youthful mind, which should become familiar with the conspicuous men of past times, and with the deeds which made them so; and it is to this end that our author has evidently labored. The researches of the antiquary, the ecclesiastic, and the jurist have been availed of in constructing these manuals, which renders them extremely useful to those who preside over the nurseries of our future citizens. The *History of the World* embraces a far wider range than is comprised within the limits of archaeology; it is not what Milton called "as lean as a plain journal," but adorned with mythology and fable; with records of laws and customs, ancient and modern, and of the domestic life and intellectual culture of the principal nations of the earth. That Mr. Goodrich saw the great importance of teaching history to the young, may be inferred from the fact that his last work<sup>43</sup> was compiled for the benefit of children, whose acquaintance with the annals of their own country could not, in his opinion, be made too early.

Although Mr. Seavey's arrangement of Goodrich's history<sup>44</sup> is ostensibly compiled for the use of schools, many who have arrived at man's estate will derive benefit from its careful perusal. Where so much ground has of necessity to be covered briefly is, of course, a matter of paramount importance, and Mr. Seavey abstains from indulging in political essays or enthusiastic descriptions at war with truth. He has given a well-arranged, plain, unadorned statement of facts; showing much care in the collection of his materials, and a commendable faculty for work. It is no small merit in the writer of a history embracing the period of our late civil war that he should deal in plain records rather than in opinions or speculations, and the present writer—who has bestowed so much patient labor on his revision of Goodrich's history that it approaches nearly to an original work

—has furnished the student of American history with an authentic chronicle of events, leaving to him the task of drawing his own inferences and forming his own conclusions. The chronological review, and especially the contemporary chronology appended to each period of the history, will be found to be of the greatest use alike to teacher and pupil.

The purpose of Dr. Smith's *New Testament History*<sup>45</sup> is similar to that of his *Old Testament History*—that of supplying a manual "which in fulness, accuracy, and use of the best sources of information, may take its place by the side of the histories of Greece, Rome, England, and France, in the present series." The work is divided into three sections, the first giving the connection between the two Testaments, coming down to the destruction of Jerusalem; the second giving the Gospel history, and the third the Apostolic history. A great deal of valuable matter is given from the *Dictionary of the Bible*, especially from the Archbishop of York's articles on the life of our Saviour, and on the Gospels, and the appearance of Mr. Lewin's *Festi Sacri* has aided the editor in giving his work chronological completeness. The extraordinary fulness and conscientious exactitude of these histories leave nothing, so far as we can see, to be desired. The maps and plates are uncommonly good for a book of the class, and in nearly eight hundred pages of close matter we have detected scarcely a mistake.

No book that we have come upon for a very long time has stronger claims upon the gratitude of young classical students than Mr. Cox's little *Manual of Mythology*.<sup>46</sup> As mythology was presented in our school days, it might be interesting or not, according to the taste of the pupil; but it was at any rate unmeaning, and perhaps it was the part of wisdom in teachers to leave boys at liberty to acquaint themselves with it or neglect it, as seemed good to them. The experience of the writer was probably akin to that of many of his readers,—obliged to spend six to ten hours daily in "study," while three or four sufficed to accomplish all his tasks, and the teacher's eye was on the alert to see that no forbidden book was introduced, he fell back upon the "speaker" and the classical dictionary, and, reading the readable parts of the latter from beginning to end, possessed himself of a jumbled knowledge—all that school or college ever gave him—of the exploits of the Olympian and other gods, of the demi-gods and heroes, —all being remembered or forgotten in accordance with their claims, purely as stories, upon the interest or the imagination. Mr. Cox has changed all that. Prof. Max Müller and the other comparative mythologists within a few years have put a meaning into what a matter-of-fact person might have considered simply silly, and while Mr. Baring-Gould is earning the thanks of the general reader for showing the rich stores of poetry underlying what has seemed an aggregation of gross fables, Mr. Cox has done the same thing for the school-boy. An example or two of his mode of treatment will give the best clue to the value of the book. After citing the close resemblances, both in incidents and in names, between many legends of classical mythology and between these and the tales of other mythologies—Indian, Norse, Persian, etc.—he goes on to show—the mere statement is sufficient—that such resemblances "cannot be accidental; and as we know that Greeks, and Romans, and Hindoos, and Germans, and Norsemen could not have copied these tales from one another three or four thousand years ago, we must trace them to a common source, when the forefathers of all these tribes were living in the same place." Then we have the identity of the stories shown by the fact that "words like Procris, Daphne, Briseis, Hermes, Charites, and Echidna, which have no clear meaning in Greek, are, in the ancient language of India, merely common names for the Dew and the Sun, for the morning with its beautiful clouds and soft breezes, for the glistening horses of the Sun and the throttling snake of darkness." From this it becomes easy to show how the germs of the several stories were contained in words and phrases which simply described events or scenes in the natural world; and how, as the original meaning was lost, the tales built upon them became unnatural or shocking, by a gradual and unconscious process of distortion and disfiguration. "Thus," for example, "whereas, in time of drought, men had said that the Sun was killing the fruits of the Earth, which was his bride, the Greek said that Tantalus, an Eastern king, killed and cooked his own child." In like manner the story that Cronos swallowed his children as soon as they were born, was an expression of the fact that time swallows up the days as they come each in its order. So with Zeus, "the earth had been spoken of as the bride of the sky, and the sky was said to overshadow the earth with his love in every land; and all this, when applied to a deity with human form and passions, grew up into strange stories of lawless license." In this manner—but with a detail which we cannot, of course, exemplify—are treated Greek mythology and Latin, and then, but more briefly, the Egyptian, Assyrian, Vedic, Persian, and Norse—the stories being traced from one to the other, and the influences suggested by which climate,

surroundings, national temperament, moulded the myth into divergent shapes. What a metamorphosis is thus worked in mythology, transforming nonsense into one of the most charming of studies, and one of the best calculated to enlarge the imagination and stimulate the powers of comparison and combination, is readily seen. The little book is within the comprehension of children, but all of us can read it with as much pleasure as profit, and without annoyance from the Socratic style by which its brevity is produced. We learn with pleasure that Messrs. Leypoldt & Holt are to give us the same author's *Tales from Greek Mythology, of the Gods and Heroes, and of Thebes and Argos*, collected in one volume as *Tales of Ancient Greece*. Mr. Cox is an educational benefactor with whose assistance no classical teacher who is not stupid or ignorant can afford to dispense.

Professor Atwater's displeasure at Archbishop Whately's treatment of logic would seem to have prompted him to make his work<sup>47</sup> as little like Whately's as possible. At any rate, we should have difficulty in imagining an elementary treatise more certain to repel and disgust a student than this. In the main it is accurate enough and precise, and shows thorough mastery of the subject. But its dryness is unspeakable, and its parenthetical and digressive style is puzzling in the extreme, and likely to leave a young student in constant uncertainty where he is standing, how he has got where he finds himself, and what he is likely to come to next. Before he has read a page, for instance, he will come upon this:

"Since the mind may make itself, its own states and exercises, objects of its attention, it is said in this case to *objectize* itself, or become a *subject-object*. When it is needful to discriminate other objects from this *subject-object*, some writers use the term *object-object*. The student who understands the foregoing, will easily understand the terms *objectively* and *subjectively*, when they come in his way."

We have no doubt that such a student will easily understand anything. He may even understand what is the subject under consideration when, six lines below, he is informed that "thought is *subjectively* the operation, and *objectively* the product, of the discursive faculties of the mind," and is led from this to the assurance that, "5. It becomes necessary now, in order to make this definition complete and intelligible, to explain what we mean by the discursive faculties. Although this is properly within the province of psychology, yet it is at one of those points of contact between it and logic which requires to be explained in defining the object-matter of either. 6. For our present purpose, then, the faculties of intelligence (leaving out of view memory, which retains and reproduces what is given by the other faculties), may be divided into two great classes—the intuitive and the discursive." Then there are nearly two pages about the intuitive faculties before we get back to the discursive. An arrangement which involves this necessity of constantly pulling up the pupil as soon as he is under way, in order to supply him with the materials for getting on again, shows a hopeless lack of that deftness of workmanship which is nowhere more necessary than in writers on logical subjects, and for which no amount of ponderous—not to say ungainly—erudition can atone. Some of Professor Atwater's statements, again, are such that nine students out of ten would consider them fallacious. This, for instance, occurs in his remarks on Logical Judgements:

"While the subject may be either an intuition or conception, the predicate must always be a conception or common term, the name of a class. If we have Peter for the subject, unless we have a common term as predicate, we can get only the senseless tautological judgement, Peter is Peter" (p. 24).

To which any bright lad would be very apt to rejoin with some such judgement as, Francis was Junius, William of Orange was William III., and convince himself and his classmates that their teacher was put to confusion. Such a boy, too, would get very little good from the suggestion (p. 68) about "developing the several imperfections of obscurity, confusion, and inadequacy, into clearness, distinctness, adequacy, and particularity." Possibly a college class may find some atonement for the general dullness of the book in the occasional gleams of a latent wit which once and awhile breaks out in such fashion as this:

"Terms of conceptions are absolute and relative. . . . Relative are those which imply others. As son implies a parent, and king a subject. A pair of relatives like father and son are called correlatives. . . . Some relatives imply not merely one, but two, or even several correlatives. Thus, cousin implies not only another cousin, but parents, one of whom is brother or sister of one of the parents of the other cousin" (p. 60).

This unintentional double entendre—if we may be pardoned the bull—in the matter of "relatives" is the best parallel we have found to Hood's narrow escape from printing his great poem under the title of *The Tale of a Shirt*. Unfit as we consider the book for use by any teachers who dislike needless cruelty, and have emancipated themselves from those antiquated notions about mental "discipline" which made every study as disciplinary as possible, it still has the merit of being concise, and to some extent exhaustive; an appendix contains some valuable "examples for praxis" and specimens of syllogistic notation; and by way of a review for a class which has already gone through a more attractive work, or for any one who wishes to furbish up his rusty weapons of logic, we can give it a commendation such as we must withhold from it *quid* text-book.

<sup>40</sup> *School History of the United States*. By A. B. Berard. Philadelphia: Cowperthwait & Co. 1868.

<sup>41</sup> *A Pictorial History of the United States*. By S. G. Goodrich. Philadelphia: E. H. Butler & Co. 1868.

<sup>42</sup> *A Pictorial History of the World, Ancient and Modern*. The same.

<sup>43</sup> *The American Child's Pictorial History of the United States*. The same.

<sup>44</sup> *Goodrich's History of the United States*. Rewritten and brought down to the present time (1867). By Wm. H. Seavey, A.M., Principal of the Girls' High and Normal School, Boston. Boston: Brewer & Tileston. 1868.

<sup>45</sup> *The New Testament History*; with an introduction connecting the History of the Old and New Testaments. Edited by Wm. Smith, LL.D., Classical Examiner in the University of London. New York: Harper & Bros. 1868.

<sup>46</sup> *A Manual of Mythology*. In the form of question and answer. By the Rev. George W. Cox, M.A., late Scholar of Trinity College, Oxford. First American, from the second London edition. New York: Leypoldt & Holt. 1868.

<sup>47</sup> *Manual of Elementary Logic*. Designed especially for the use of teachers and learners. By Lyman H. Atwater, Professor of Mental and Moral Philosophy in the College of New Jersey. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1867.



Who Mr. P. R. Leatherman is cannot be ascertained from the title-page of his book on *Moral Science*.<sup>66</sup> From an advertisement at the end, however, we discover that he resides—or did eight years ago, when his work was first published—at Woodville, Miss. Why he wrote these *Elements* he tells us in the preface. It was because frequent calls for a system of this kind were made by his fellow-citizens in various parts of the country, and he offers it to them to supply their demand, though modestly doubtful in regard to its being exactly what they want. Mr. Leatherman sets out with the idea of making the Bible, and it alone, the standard of good morals. As might have been expected after such a declaration, he distorts the Scriptures whenever it is necessary to make them accord with his views. Thus, he finds ample confirmation of his doctrine that slavery is a great blessing and approved of by God, and sufficient condemnation of polygamy as a great curse and vice. Thus he says: "It is evident from the teaching of the sacred Scriptures that polygamy is contrary to the will of God, and therefore not right." Whereas it is evident from the teachings of the Old Testament that polygamy was the custom of God's favorite people, and nowhere meets with His condemnation. Monogamy is a Christian institution, not a Biblical one—although it is nowhere expressly condemned by Christ or his apostles. Another argument adduced by the author is, that if it be right for a man to have several wives it is equally right for a woman to have several husbands—a very absurd turn of reasoning, and one which shows his entire ignorance of the first principles of physiology. Polygamy is not a matter of morals at all, but one of civilization and high intellectual development. The chapter on slavery is behind the times; the book's having been published originally in 1860, and the author's being a Southerner, are, perhaps, valid excuses for arguments and theories which will not stand now. Mr. Leatherman asserts that man is by nature truthful. Here he flies in the face of the Scriptures, which assert the reverse. The author, declaring as he does that such and such things done by man are contrary to the will of God, shows that he has a very limited idea of the attributes of the Deity. Upon the whole the *Elements* of Mr. Leatherman are crude in the extreme. The views are such in the main as an ignorant but good-hearted man would be likely to express, and are altogether deficient in that elevated tone, philosophical spirit, and largeness of comprehension which should mark every treatise on *Moral Science*. The book is really not worth the paper upon which it is printed.

Mr. John Hecker is one of the most public-spirited and best citizens of New York. Whenever we hear of him it is as engaged in some good work; he is philanthropic in the extreme, somewhat self-willed, well educated, but with a bias toward extreme views, and a disposition to go beyond his depth in learning, which seriously interfere with his ability to accomplish much in the way of a reform. His book<sup>67</sup> is a fair example of his mode of thought, and of the impractical character of many of his ideas. It is an attempt to introduce phrenology and the doctrine of the temperaments into the public schools, as the basis upon which the education of the children should be conducted. His method is briefly outlined in the following extract:

"In initiating this method my first effort would be to obtain the concurrence of the principal of some one of the primary schools in the attempt. I should ascertain that she had a general knowledge of the leading temperaments and the physical signs by which they may be known; there are, of course, many which, for want of space, are not alluded to in this letter. I should then ask her to arrange the pupils of each class into four divisions according to her own judgment of their temperaments, and that they should be so seated in the class-room that the different temperaments would occupy separate places. This being done, I should visit the class-room from day to day and confer with the principal and teachers upon the different modes by which these divisions might with advantage be managed. Upon this head explanations cannot be given in detail upon paper, but in the presence of any ordinary children I should be able to make them at once. Then nervous children will understand their lessons at once, but they will forget them; they must have reviews—the same thing over and over again. Then bilious ones will not understand easily; you must therefore be patient, and take plenty of time in explaining everything fully at first; but what they have once learned they will remember. Then sanguine, ruddy-faced boys by the windows are not the ones to sit where they can look out of doors; everything they see in the street while under instruction will distract their attention. Put them there by the door, and let the full-faced, watery, lymphatic boys now sitting by the door go over by the window."

This is all very well in theory, but in practice it would be a difficult matter. The temperaments are often well marked, but frequently are so mixed up in one individual as to render it a difficult matter to say which predominates. Besides, in children it rarely happens that the temperament is fully developed. So far as the phrenological part of the book is concerned there is not much beyond speculation, and the views expressed are even more impractical than those based on temperament. Mr. Hecker is not so well acquainted with physiology as he might be, and makes a number of erroneous assertions. Thus (p. 64) he says that the cerebellum is "the organ of unconscious motion," whereas the spinal cord is the organ by which such motions are performed. In the assertion that in the ability to receive the influence of the Holy Spirit, which man possesses, exists "the characteristic which distinguishes between him and the brutes," we

have a dogma enunciated which is altogether devoid of a scientific basis. And this leads us to the great objection we have to Mr. Hecker's book. He calls it a *Scientific Basis of Education*. There is very little science in it, but an immense amount of hypothesis and fanciful reasoning in regard to the spiritual faculties of man, the seat of the soul, the influence of the Holy Spirit, etc., which might be well enough in other connections, but which certainly have nothing to do with science. His remarks in the appendix on the will are singularly obscure. What, for instance, is the meaning of this paragraph?

"When man is born again, and the soul is awakened by the Holy Ghost, then only can the will be centralized in God, this being the condition by which the truth is manifested in several persons, combined in the unity of the Spirit."

But, in spite of its faults, Mr. Hecker's book is interesting; and it deserves the respect of all for the earnestness and charity which the author displays on every page. We hope, therefore, that what there is of good in it may be made use of, and that the speculative and incongruous parts will, in the next edition, be left over for issue in some other form, if the author cannot resist publishing them. The book is illustrated by several tolerably correct portraits of the temperaments, and a number of phrenological heads of George Washington, constructed on an entirely original plan.

From an experience of thirty years in the practical workings of any system of education a mind of ordinary capacity could scarcely fail to acquire a tolerably accurate acquaintance with its details, a tolerably comprehensive notion of its errors and defects. And Mr. S. S. Randall, Superintendent of Public Schools of the City of New York, gives evidence in his book<sup>68</sup> not only that he possesses a mind of very ordinary capacity, but that he has applied it with some success to mastering the not very complicated details of the system of public instruction in the city and state of New York. But Mr. Randall, like many greater and wiser men, commits the error of avoiding what he does understand to set forth at much cost of time and paper what he does not, which detracts somewhat from the value of his treatise. Instead of confining himself to a careful consideration of the practical working of the public school system, to suggestions for the remedying of its very obvious defects, or to elaboration of the plan he barely hints at, of perfecting its usefulness by making it subservient to the colleges and universities, matters wherein thirty years' experience should entitle his opinion to weight, he avails himself of inaccurate reminiscences of Quinbleau and Ruskin to indulge in a mess of vague generalities about education, of hackneyed commonplaces about the loveliness of knowledge and the deformity of ignorance, the responsibilities of parents and states, and a deal of balderdash on the subject of intellectual culture which would not be unworthy of a Harvard commencement essay. The problem of combining religious with mental instruction in the public schools without alarming sectarian prejudice is one that might profitably engage a public-school superintendent's attention. Mr. Randall does indeed grapple with it feebly, but his reasoning is so illogical, his conclusions so inconsequent, his solutions so inadequate, his own bewilderment apparently so complete, that our difficulty is strengthened rather than relieved. He tells us that no education can be truly profitable which is not based on the great truths of Christian revelation; and in the next breath we hear that "the principal object of public school instruction" being "intellectual culture," as Mr. Randall understands intellectual culture, "moral and religious instruction, however important and indispensable in the formation of character, can only be incidentally communicated." This incidental communication, we afterwards learn, is to consist chiefly in daily reading of the Christian Bible, which totally denies to our Jewish brethren any share in the benefits of a system they are taxed to support, while as to Roman Catholics it skillfully begs the question, and otherwise is the inculcation of an abstract pagan morality. This is a fair sample of Mr. Randall's method of dealing with the subtleties of a subject whose first principles even he has apparently to learn, while his style proves him to be about equally conversant with the mysteries of grammar and rhetoric. What can be expected, for instance, of a writer who deliberately assures us in his own name that "Truth is one and indivisible—the same yesterday, to-day, and for ever—and its mountain summits tower far above and beyond the region where the dark clouds of passion, prejudice, and error intercept or distort the bright radiance of its beams"? Is there any pupil under Mr. Randall's supervision who could not correct his impression that it was always "true and susceptible of the most rigid demonstration that the planets revolved on a fixed and definite orbit around the sun as their common centre"? or that "no one thinks for a moment of questioning the theory or the fundamental laws of gravitation discovered by Newton through the agency and upon the basis of rigid mathematical demonstration"? Candor requires us to add that Mr. Randall has apparently read, in his thirty years' experience, considerable poetry, which he quotes effectively, if not always appropriately, and that there may be more in his book than we feel justified in giving him credit for, since a great deal of it we were unable to comprehend at all.

## TABLE-TALK.

FREE SCHOOLS for the Southern States ought to be—in fact, in many quarters, are—treated as one of the most important features in reconstruction. And they are one of the most delicate, in which a little mismanagement at the outset may suffice to frustrate the expectations we ought to be able to build upon them. Given a fair chance, we think they will win both popularity and success. At Wilmington, N. C., for instance, ended last month the summer term of the schools opened two years ago by Miss Bradley, acting under the auspices of the Soldiers' Memorial Society, of Massachusetts. Miss Bradley and her assistants commenced operations in one of the most unsavory purlieus of the city, collecting over 100 children who are described as having then evinced marks of inconceivable ignorance and neglect, and of whose 85 parents, when they came to unite in a letter of thanks, only 16 could sign their names. As the school went on there were gathered in from 1,500 to 2,000 negro children, and the system extorted the admiration of the journals of the city and of its citizens, who have now adopted it with the purpose of enlarging and perpetuating it on an adequate foundation. Indeed, at the recent closing exercises were gathered a large audience, which included the mayor of Wilmington and the leading citizens, many of whom, together with the trustees of the just established schools, united in formal letters of acknowledgement and thanks to Miss Bradley and those who sent her.—Elsewhere a similar spirit is manifested. We have more than once mentioned how ready a response the almoners of Mr. Peabody's fund have found in the Gulf States. In Louisiana, as the New Orleans papers note, committees have been formed in many of the interior towns to arrange the action on their own part preliminary to availing themselves of its assistance. "In one small town, Arcadia," says *The New Orleans Times*, "as much as \$1,000 were subscribed within a week to lay the basis of a successful school, free to all white children. In Shreveport a young merchant has given an impetus to the movement by promising to contribute \$5 a month toward the rearing of two similar schools. In other places, the teachers of private academies and colleges have expressed their willingness to make their elementary departments 'free,' for a very moderate compensation from the fund." Meanwhile certain representatives of the "carpet-bag" element and some very well-meaning people, whose zeal outstrips their judgement, almost accomplished a measure in Louisiana which would effectually have checked all this and brought the schools into bad repute for many a year. The Rev. T. W. Conway—who is school-superintendent, and appears to be confident of remaining so—prepared, and nearly got through the legislature, a bill containing, amid 82 pages of foolscap, these provisions,—that the schools shall be open to all children between the ages of six and twenty-one, without distinction of race or color or previous condition; that the board of education shall consist of the lieutenant-governor and six persons appointed by the governor, to be confirmed by the senate; that the state superintendent alone shall be re-elected, the directors of the six general school districts into which the state is to be divided being appointed by him; that the superintendent shall be empowered to decide without appeal all controversy or disputes arising under this law; compulsory attendance of all children between eight and fourteen years without fixed employment, in such school or place as may be provided by the board of education, at the expense of the parents or guardians, or in case of poverty at the expense of the school fund; and that one-fourth of one per cent. be levied on all taxable property in the state. Before the defeat of the bill a long argument upon its merits, in *The Morning Star*, the organ of the large Roman Catholic population of Louisiana, commenced in this wise:

"A bill is before the legislature providing for the reorganization of the public schools of this state on the basis of compulsory education. It requires that all children from eight years of age to fourteen shall be sent to school six months in the year. This regulation is enforced by several severe remedies. It is enacted that 'No child under the age of fourteen years shall be employed in any manufacturing establishment, or on any farm or plantation, or in any employment in this state, unless such child has attended some public or private school at least six of the twelve months next preceding,' etc. Any one who shall furnish employment contrary to this regulation will be fined one hundred dollars. And again, it is provided in section five of chapter six, that if parents do not send their children to some school six months out of the twelve, the school commissioners may, by certain proceedings, take the children from them entirely for five months. During those five months the children shall be kept at school, 'or some place of correction,' their board to be paid out of the school fund, if its amount cannot be collected from their parents."

The plan of compulsory education here objected to will prove, we have very little doubt, essential to the success of public schools in the South. Whether it was judicious, however, to embarrass them at the outset, while still unestablished, with a provision so at variance with the practice and sentiment of the people, is quite another question. But that there should be combined with this a requirement that color shall be disregarded—that is, that white children shall be forced into a contact which is certainly regarded, whether reasonably or not, as loathsome—this is one of the maddest pieces of folly that has been attempted during the whole reconstruction business. Its inevitable effect would have been, first, to intensify the race hatred, which is a great and ominous political problem, demanding the most deliberate consideration and most adroit and statesmanlike treatment; and, next, to impose the schools upon the white race in the

<sup>66</sup> *The Elements of Moral Science*. By P. R. Leatherman. Philadelphia: James Challen & Son. 1860.

<sup>67</sup> *The Scientific Basis of Education, Demonstrated by an Analysis of the Temperaments and of Phrenological Facts in connection with Mental Phenomena and the office of the Holy Spirit in the Processes of the Mind: In a series of Letters to the Department of Public Instruction in the City of New York*. Second edition. By John Hecker. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. 1868.

<sup>68</sup> *First Principles of Popular Education and Public Instruction*. By S. S. Randall, Superintendent of Public Schools of the City of New York. New York: Harper & Bros. 1868.



South as a part of a system of oppression, which they would have been on the alert at every turn to discredit and bring to naught. Very happily for the future of the schools, this piece of folly apparently is checked for the present, and public sentiment has been so clearly manifested in the matter that even if demagogues or zealots should attempt to revive it, we may hope it will find no seconders. But the problem remains to provide that Southern children, white and black, shall receive education. Obviously, for the present, at least—and if the experience of schools at the North is to be regarded, where public sentiment is much less pronounced and deep-rooted on the point, and where we have only the type of what at the South is the all-engrossing social problem, perhaps, for many years or a generation to come—the solution of the difficulty can only be found in the providing a double system of schools. That, at least, is essential. But the whole subject is of the first magnitude, and should be taken out of the hands of the ignorant, precipitate, self-seeking persons who just now are hopelessly bungling it.

THE BROTHERS OF THE CHRISTIAN SCHOOLS—an order founded more than a century and a half ago by Jean Baptiste La Salle, a canon of the cathedral at Rheims, and which now works on a large scale in France, England, and the United States—are just about to establish one of their institutions at Providence, R. I., where a site has been purchased. The building is to cost \$45,000, and to be the property of the Roman Church, as the order is not permitted to acquire any.

ST. LOUIS papers note a surprising increase in the number of children applying for admission to the public schools. The schools were reopened last week, and at one of them the applicants for the first two days numbered 1,283, and 400 more were counted upon as likely to present themselves during the week, whereas the school has accommodations for but 1,210. It is therefore thought that the excess will be forced to seek admission to the confessional school of the Christian Brothers, in the same part of the city. Some idea of the number of school children in St. Louis is afforded by the circumstance that a new reading-book has been substituted for the one previously in use, and the aggregate weight of the new volumes is twelve tons.

A PUBLIC INSTRUCTOR of eminence, to whom we applied for assistance in the preparation of our educational series, and from whom we had a right to expect better things, sends us the following. We publish it as a melancholy evidence of the effects of prolonged classical training upon a vigorous and creative intellect:

EXAMINATION PAPER.—BY PROF. DEMOCRITUS, OF THE ABNORMAL SCHOOL.

## I.

Did the myth of Jupiter's descent in a shower of gold originate in the fact of his being a reigning sovereign?

## II.

(a) Did Achilles after his immersion in the Styx originate the phrase "no heel-taps?" (b) Explode the paradox that his wound "on the heel" could not be cured.

## III.

Refute the theory that the smoke of Mount Ætna proceeded from the briar-root of Briareus confined there.

## IV.

(a) May a lady's trunk be compared to the Vocative because it is the case of a dress? (b) Prove the identity of a Christmas box with the Dative case.

## V.

Does Virgil's phrase "ficto pectore fatur" establish the

fact that the ancients anticipated one of the modern fashions? In this connection examine the expression, "Quid natum falsis ludis imaginibus." ("Why do you mock your son with false forms?")

## VI.

If Julius Agricola in his invasion of Caledonia penetrated to Forfar, did he go twice two far?

## VII.

Construe the words of the *Æneid*, "Heu, miserande puer;" and show that the rendering "A lass, unhappy lad!" is no less objectionable than "Hugh, you wretched boy."

ENGLISH school returns show this variation in the average number of hours of study in the great public schools. A boy works at Eton 804 hours in the year, at Rugby 1,110 hours, at Harrow 1,254, in the Scottish schools 1,980 hours. The last—allowing for fourteen weeks' vacation, but not for Sundays or half holidays—is nearly 7½ hours a day; making the latter allowance, it is about 10½ for each secular day—which seems to us a manifestation both of cruelty and of culpable indifference to the constitution of the mind.

THE IRISH METHODISTS have just opened and got under way, at Belfast, a college of their own, built, at a cost of £26,000, by the contributions of the Methodist body throughout Great Britain, where £10,000 more are being raised for endowment, while it is expected that the professorships will be provided for by the subscriptions of Methodists in this country. The professors of the Queen's College at Belfast—the institution which Dr. McCosh left for the presidency of Princeton—seem to sympathize with the new institution, having taken part at its opening.

ITALY is to have a system of industrial schools designed to benefit the lower classes of Italian society. These schools are to be entirely unsectarian in character, and a committee of ladies in England are bestirring themselves to procure funds for the purpose.

AN IMPERIAL DECREE, published on the 6th ult. in the *Paris Moniteur*, introduces a reform far more radical than could have been expected in the higher educational system of France. It changes entirely the method hitherto pursued in relation to university training, and M. Duruy may now prepare himself for the denunciations of all those who prefer brilliant lectures to solid instruction. Long suspected of a leaning to German precedent, he now confesses the truth of the charge by bringing the professorships and the university into full conformity with it. The French minister of public instruction can, however, console himself with the knowledge that the first minds approve of his plan to model the higher schools of France, and especially in their mathematical, historical, and philological departments, after the German pattern.

M. E. BENOIST, a professor in the Faculté des Lettres at Nancy, has issued the introductory volume of a series of critical editions of the principal Greek and Latin classics which the MM. Hachette are publishing at Paris. In an introductory essay, applying in a measure to the entire series, M. Benoist dwells upon the immense progress in the study of texts of late years; the great amount of critical erudition which has been brought to bear upon them, commencing at the period of the Renaissance and continued by the great Dutch and German philological scholars; the recent collections and minute scrutiny of varying texts, carrying out the labors of Scaliger, Lambin, Camerarius, and others,—until, at length, they are restored to a purity which for ages seemed unattainable. The plan on which the series is edited is to give a text in which are embodied,

1, the results of the latest philological labors; 2, varying or disputed readings; 3, a critical and explanatory commentary, in French, of course. M. Benoist's first volume contains Virgil's *Bucolics* and *Georgics* treated in this manner, his commentary dealing with philology, history, mythology, etc., the *Æneid* being reserved for a future volume. His success has apparently been complete, winning high praise from French and German critics, notably from Wagner, the editor of Heyne's great edition of Virgil, who testifies in the course of a eulogistic notice printed in the *Neue Jahrbücher für Philologie und Pädagogik*, that the stores of German erudition on the subject have been thoroughly availed of.

M. GUSTAVE DESNOIRESTERRES about a year ago published a volume entitled *La Jeunesse de Voltaire*—of which we soon after gave some account (*The Round Table*, No. 142, October 12, 1867)—this volume, which covered the period in his hero's life anterior to that included in his own *Mémoires*, being the first of a series on *Voltaire et la Société Française au XVIIIe. Siècle*. He has now issued the second of the series, *Voltaire au Château de Cirey*, which is spoken of by Parisian critics as a gain upon the first, the author exercising more discrimination, and resisting the temptation to degenerate into eulogy, although he apparently takes up the cudgels for the satirist, even when his course was clearly indefensible, dazzled by the brilliancy of his revolt against spiritual and intellectual despotism.

BARON EOTVOS, the Hungarian minister of public instruction, has discovered in Poland the history of Hungary which Etienne Bathory employed Francis Farkas to write in 1545, together with the immense store of documents, invaluable to Hungarian historians, which were used in the preparation of this never published work, and likewise the interesting despatches which the Hungarian court sent to Rome by the returning Papal legate in 1489.

MGR. BIGANDET, Bishop of Rangoon, in Burmah, has obtained from the King for the Emperor Napoleon a complete copy of the *Tripitaka*, the great Buddhist collection, of which only detached scraps have hitherto reached Europe. It fills twenty-eight volumes, bound in boards of richly painted and gilded native woods, the contents being written in Burman characters (in the old, sacred Pali dialect) on palm-leaf paper, each page being adorned with tracery in which gold and red predominate. The Royal Library at Copenhagen has been until now the only possessor of a MS. of this kind, and the Emperor has sent this to the Imperial Library.

M. SSKATSKHOW, Russian counsellor of state, is about to sell at St. Petersburg fifteen years' collection of Chinese books and manuscripts, numbering in all 11,607 works, and including over 1,000 rare and unique specimens of wood engravings such as even the finest Chinese collections do not contain. Various Russian scientific and learned bodies have endeavored without success to raise means for the purchase, and the report is that it will be made by "un amateur américain" for the sum of 225,000 francs.

M. THIERS is said to be at work upon a ten-volume *History of the Restoration*, in completion of his *History of the Empire*. £10,000, it is stated, has been offered him for the copyright.

M. TENOT has just made what is considered, even for Paris, an extraordinary literary and political success, by his *Paris in December, 1851*, a narrative of the events preceding and accompanying Louis Napoleon's *coup d'état*.

M. TAXILE DELORD will publish at Paris this winter the first of four volumes of *A History of the Second Empire*.

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